

BULLETIN OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

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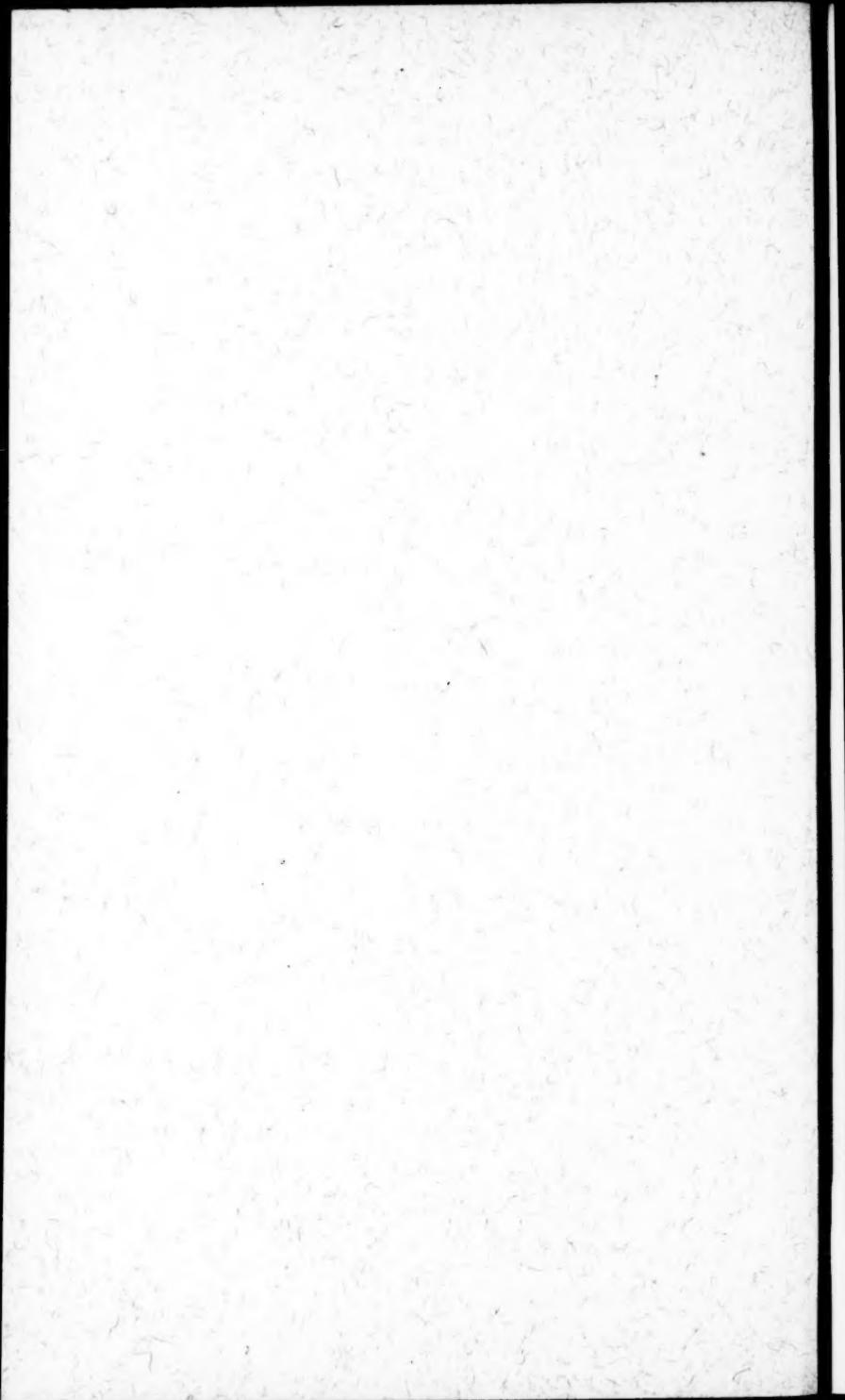
BULLETIN NUMBER 43

Abstracts of Unpublished Masters' Theses in the Field of Secondary-School Administration

Prepared under the Direction of
JOSEPH ROEMER
George Peabody College for Teachers

THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

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1932-1933

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TENTATIVE PROGRAM OF ANNUAL MEETING
OF THE
DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL
PRINCIPALS
AT

Minneapolis, February 27, 28 and March 1, 1933.

PRELIMINARY ANNOUNCEMENT
PROGRAM

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
February 27, 28, and March 1, 1933
(All meetings to be held in Leamington Hotel)

GENERAL SESSION

Monday, February 27
2 p. m.

Music, Minneapolis Public Schools

- I. "In Defense of the American High School"
Dr. C. H. Judd, Director of the Department of Education, The University of Chicago
- II. "The National Survey of Secondary Education"
Dr. W. J. Cooper, Commissioner of Education
- III. "State Support for High Schools"
Dr. E. D. Butterfield, Commissioner of Education, Connecticut
- IV. Selection of Nominating Committee.

DISCUSSION GROUPS

Tuesday, February 28
9:30 a. m.

GROUP No. 1—"Improvement and Economy in Administration"

Prof. W. C. Reavis, The University of Chicago

"Improvement and Economy in Instruction"

Prin. R. R. Cook, Roosevelt High School, Des Moines, Ia.

Discussion

Prin. E. L. Mahaffey, South High School, Columbus, O.

Prin. W. N. Van Slyck, Topeka High School, Topeka, Kan.

Discussion from the floor

GROUP No. 2—"Directed Learning"

Dr. R. O. Billett, Specialist in School Administration, United States Office of Education

"Library Standards"

Mr. C. C. Certain, Editor of English Review, Detroit

Discussion

(Speakers to be selected)

Discussion from the floor

GROUP No. 3—"The Relationship of Regional Accrediting Agencies to Secondary Education During this Crisis"

Dean J. B. Edmonson, School of Education, University of Michigan

"The Relationship of State Departments of Education to Secondary Education during this Crisis"

Deputy Superintendent W. H. Bristow, State Department of Education, Pennsylvania

Discussion

(Speakers to be selected)

Discussion from the floor

JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' LUNCHEON

Tuesday, February 28

12:30 p. m.

(Speaker to be selected)

Tuesday, February 28

2:00 p. m.

GROUP No. 1—"Improvement and Economy in the Curriculum"

Director J. H. Newlon, Lincoln School, Teachers College

"Improvement and Economy in Extra-Curricular Activities"

Prof. E. K. Fretwell, Teachers College

Discussion

Mr. Galen Jones, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Tulsa, Oklahoma

Prin. P. H. Powers, East Technical High School, Cleveland

Discussion from the floor

GROUP No. 2—"Supervision of Instruction in the Junior High School"

(Speaker to be selected)

"The Teaching and Learning Situation in Junior High-School Classrooms"

Principal H. H. Ryan, University of Wisconsin High School

Discussion

(Speakers to be selected)

Discussion from the floor

GROUP No. 3—"The Tax-Supported Junior College During the Next Decade"

Prof. W. C. Eells, Stanford University

"Public Relations of the Junior College"

(Speaker to be selected)

Discussion

(Speaker to be selected)

Discussion from the floor

Wednesday, March 1

9:00 a. m.

GROUP No. 1—"The North Carolina Program of the State Support of Education as Affecting High Schools"

Prin. E. H. Garinger, Charlotte, North Carolina, High School

"The New York Program of State Support of Education as Affecting High Schools"

Deputy Superintendent A. D. Simpson, Department of Public Instruction, New York

Discussion

Prof. Paul R. Mort, Teachers College

Discussion from the floor

GROUP No. 2—"Analyzing Objectives in Music Education"

Mr. Russell V. Morgan, Director of Music, Cleveland Public Schools

"Analyzing Art Objectives in the High School"

Miss Indianola Willcuts, Supervisor of Art, Duluth

"Industrial Art Objectives and Their Attainment"

Prof. Homer J. Smith, School of Education, University of Minnesota

Discussion

(Speakers to be selected)

Discussion from the floor

GROUP No. 3—"Recent Developments in Instruction at the Junior-College Level"

Prof. Doak S. Campbell, George Peabody College for Teachers

"Recent Developments in Junior-College Administration"

(Speaker to be selected)

Discussion

Prof. G. W. Willett, Lyons Township High School and Junior College, La Grange, Illinois

(One speaker to be selected)

LUNCHEON

Wednesday, March 1

12:30 P. M.

Music, Minneapolis Public Schools

Pres. L. D. Coffman, University of Minnesota, Speaker

Wednesday, March 1

2:00 P. M.

Research Section—Dr. Charles H. Judd, Director of School of Education, The University of Chicago, Chairman

Business Session—Dr. Thomas H. Briggs' report on "Plan for the Re-Study of Objectives of Education"

Financial Report

Election of Officers

SPECIAL NOTICE

If any high-school principal desires to have a special letter sent to his board of education or to his superintendent, in which it is urged that he be sent to this meeting with his expenses paid, he should send the name and address of the one to whom such a letter should be directed to the secretary, H. V. Church, J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Illinois.

ABSTRACTS OF UNPUBLISHED MASTERS' THESES IN THE FIELD OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

(Theses completed and prepared at George Peabody College for Teachers)

The abstracts contained in this bulletin were prepared at the invitation of Executive Secretary H. V. Church of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association and were edited under the general direction of Dr. Joseph Roemer.

These theses were completed in the Department of Secondary Education of George Peabody College for Teachers under the supervision of various instructors, including Professors J. J. Didcoct, S. B. Hall, C. W. Knudsen, Joseph Roemer.

Since space would not permit reviewing all the theses, a list of those not reviewed will be found in the appendix.

First drafts of the abstracts were prepared by a group of Secondary Education majors, including, J. E. Brewton, J. M. Feger, J. G. Gee, A. J. Geiger, W. L. Goette, R. L. Gou'ding, O. W. Hyatt, Floyd Jordan, R. D. Judd, A. M. Meyer, A. L. Morgan, H. M. Pyle, E. M. Smith, and J. H. Wise. These were carefully checked, revised, and edited by Joseph Roemer.

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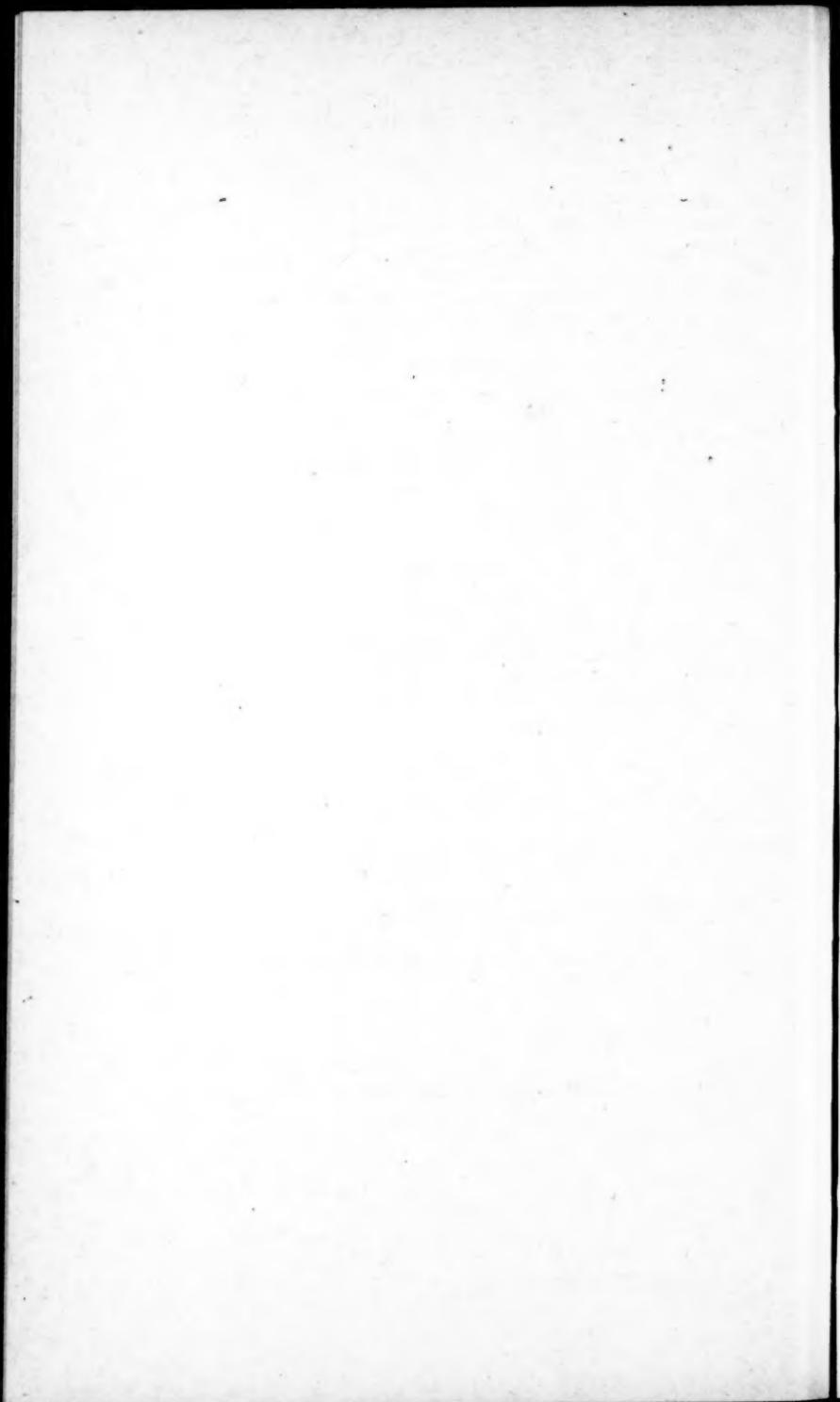
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ABSTRACTS OF UNPUBLISHED MASTERS' THESES
IN THE FIELD OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

1. Breeze, Retha Edith. *Secondary Schools and College Preparation.* June, 1921. Pp. 67.

Problem. The problem of this thesis was to compare the efficiency of various types of secondary schools by the standard of college preparation.

Limitations of the Study. The study is limited to the college records of 1393 freshmen in the College of Arts and Sciences in Vanderbilt University, during the school years 1910-1911 through 1919-1920. Furthermore, only one standard of measure is used—that of college preparation.

Sources of Data. The data were secured from the Registrar's record of grades in Vanderbilt University, made by freshmen and sophomores in the College of Arts and Sciences.

Technique Used in the Study. The method of the study was analytical, making use of personal investigation of college records, and requests from state high school inspectors and other school officials. After securing the names of schools, both public and private, size of schools as to enrollment and number of teachers, and records made by the graduates of all these schools having registrants in Vanderbilt University in the College of Arts and Sciences during the ten year period 1910 to 1920, the author by tables shows which type and size of school best prepares its students for college, based upon the per cent of failures recorded against these registrants.

Findings and Conclusions.

1. Students from public high schools with twenty-five or more teachers showed superior achievement of that group over all other groups of both public and private high schools.
2. Students from both public and private schools with from eleven to twenty-four teachers have made a poorer record than those from schools with fewer teachers.
3. There is a marked difference in achievements between the private and the public secondary school group in favor of the latter.

4. In almost all cases the highest per cent of failures occurred in mathematics.
5. The per cent of failures in modern languages was higher than in ancient languages.
6. The high per cent of failures shown in all groups taken together indicates that, as a whole, the secondary schools are low in efficiency in preparing students for college courses.

2. Owens, Morgan R. *Homogeneous Grouping of Eighth and Ninth Grade Mathematics Students*. August, 1924. Pp. 79.

Problem. The problem in this study is to give an analysis of the situation found in the mathematics classes of the eighth and ninth grades of the Pine Bluff Junior High School, in light of teachers' marks, intelligence tests, and educational tests and to determine a scientific basis for assigning students to class sections in eighth and ninth grade mathematics whereby each student will work in a class section with fellow students whose mental abilities are in close proximity to his own mental ability.

Limitations of the Study. The study deals with only 316 cases, 155 girls and 161 boys. The materials are collected from one school representing only one city in one section of the country.

Source of Data. The data concerning the mental ability were obtained by giving the Otis Group Intelligence Scale, Form A, and the standardized educational tests were Curtis Arithmetic Test, Form B, given to the eighth grade, and the Hotz Algebra Scales, Series A were administered to the ninth grade. All tests were given during the school year of 1923-1924.

Technique Used in the Study. The technique used in this study was that of determining the correlations between the factors taken into consideration—teachers' marks, intelligence tests, and standardized tests. Upon the results obtained from these measures recommendations are made for grouping children in mathematics homogeneously.

Findings and Conclusions. The facts brought out by the above analysis are stated as follows:

1. The age-grade progress of the eighth and ninth grade mathematics classes in this school is about average when compared to the age-grade standards for the United States.
2. The intelligence of eighth and ninth grade students is a little above the norm established by the Otis Group Intelligence Scales, and pupils of normal-age and under-age do a higher grade of work in eighth and ninth grade mathematics than over-age pupils.
3. The intelligence of the ninth grade is slightly lower than the intelligence of the eighth grade students.
4. The intelligence of the boys in the eighth and ninth grades is slightly lower than the intelligence of the girls.
5. According to the Courtis Arithmetic Tests and the Hotz Algebra scales eighth and ninth grade students are somewhat below standard in achievement in Arithmetic and Algebra.
6. There is a very significant, positive correlation between intelligence and achievement in the Courtis Arithmetic Tests and between intelligence and achievement on the Hotz Algebra Scales, respectively, $.30 \pm .05$ and $.39 \pm .04$.
7. There is a very significant, positive correlation between the intelligence of the students and the teachers' marks.
8. In scholarship, as determined by teachers' marks, the girls as a group out-rank the boys as a group although eight of the highest ranking students are boys and four are girls.
9. A combination plan is recommended for grouping of students using the three measures—teachers-marks, intelligence tests, and standardized educational tests. The following plan is suggested:
 - (a) Rank students in order of their indices of brightness.
 - (b) Rank the students in order of their achievement in the standardized educational tests in mathematics.

- (c) Rank the students according to the teachers' marks they receive.
- (d) Average the three rankings thus obtained and form a fourth and final ranking of the students.
- (e) From this final ranking of the students separate them into slow, medium, and fast groups.

The following conclusions are given:

- 1. After the slow, medium and fast groups have been formed, each group of students should be given work in mathematics comparable with their mental ability.
- 2. Ample provision should be made for transferring pupils from one group to another as the occasion seems to justify.
- 3. It should be emphasized that all of the pupils in any of the groups do not have the same mental ability. The problem of individual differences will still be present after pupils have been grouped homogeneously. In homogeneous groups, however, the range of intelligence in each group is reduced from a very wide range to a comparatively narrow range.

3. Pinkston, Carlos B. *Status of the County High School Principal in West Tennessee*. August, 1932. Pp. 93.

Problem. The problem was to reveal the status of the West Tennessee high school principal through a cross-sectional study of their training, experience, certification, administrative duties, supervisory duties, teaching load, curriculum offered, salary and savings, size of school, equipment at their command, and of their place in the community as a whole.

Limitations of the Study. The study is limited to principals who were teaching in West Tennessee from 1928-1931 inclusive. The study was further limited to the following factors: (a) training, (b) experience, (c) certification, (d) salaries and savings, (e) administrative and supervisory duties, (f) age, size of family, insurance and degrees, (g) professional readings and affiliations, (h) relation of principal and school to community, (i) extra-curricular activities and physical training.

Sources of Data. The author relies almost wholly upon data procured from questionnaires to the county high school principals of West Tennessee. For comparative purposes the author uses conclusions from Stone's study of the Status of the County High School Principals of Tennessee; L. V. Koos, The High School Principal; and Dan H. Eikenberry, The Status of the High School Principal.

Technique Used in the Study. The conclusions are based on the answers to questionnaires sent to 54 county high schools. The mean, median or trend of each phase is pointed out. Frequent tables and charts are used. The author compares his findings with the conclusions reached by Stone, Koos, and Eickenberry.

Findings and Conclusions. The median principal of West Tennessee was 37.22 years old, had a family of 2.5 persons, received an annual salary of \$1,864.28, carried insurance to the amount of \$5,416.66, has had 36.6 quarter hours of professional training, 1.5 years of elementary teaching experience, total experience as high school principal 7.55 years, and has been in the present position 3.54 years.

The median principal taught five or more periods per day; was in charge of both elementary and high school; had poor office facilities, if any at all; often raised money for laboratory and office supplies by means of plays. He gave 2.5 hours per day to administration and little to supervision.

The median principal took an active part in church and civic life, and was responsible for extra-curricular activities which consisted mainly of athletics and literary societies.

Principals of this study compared favorably with principals throughout the country in regard to (1) training, (2) experience, and (3) certification. However, they compared unfavorably with respect to salary.

4. Sealey, R. M. *The Report of the State High School Supervisor*. June, 1925. Pp. 130.

Problem. The purpose of this study is two-fold: (1) To investigate the practices of the various State Departments of Public Instruction with regard to the preparation and publication of a periodical report on Secondary education; (2) To

prepare an acceptable report on secondary education in Florida for the biennium beginning July 1, 1922 and ending June 30, 1924.

Limitations of the Study. The following limitations are noted:

1. The study was confined to twenty-one of the twenty-four states that publish a definite report on secondary education.
2. The statistical study included only the annual reports of Florida high school principals for the school years 1922-23 and 1923-24.

Source of Data. The data upon which part I of this study is based were secured by writing a letter to each of the forty-eight State Departments of Public Instruction requesting a copy of the latest report of their State High School Supervisors. Data were collected in 1924. Finally there were at hand twenty-one reports from the twenty-four states that publish a definite report on secondary education. The data upon which part II of this study is based are the annual reports of Florida high school principals for the school years 1922-23 and 1923-24.

Findings and Conclusions.

PART ONE:

1. Twenty-four of the states publish regularly some form of report dealing with the high schools of the state.
2. The typical state report on secondary education contains an average of thirty-eight pages of material with approximately twenty-five of these devoted to tabular data concerning which there is little or no explanation. There is little use made of the graphical presentation facts and few modern statistical methods are employed in the interpretation of the data presented.

PART TWO:

1. Prominent among the evidences of the advancement of secondary education in Florida are the lengthening of the school term in many of the schools and the large

increase in the number of standard high schools of the state.

2. Extra-curricular activities and student participation in school government hold a place of minor importance among the high schools of the state.
3. More than half the teachers in the four-year high schools in 1923-24 were teaching on certificates that were issued on their college credentials.
4. Teachers' salaries in a majority of the schools are too low to insure securing and holding teachers who have ability, training, and scholarship.
5. The salaries of the principals are not in keeping with the importance of the position. The migratory tendency among the principals makes the best work almost impossible.

5. Turpin, Noah Cleveland. *Physical and Instructional Facilities of Negro High Schools in Tennessee*. August, 1932. Pp. 74.

Problem. The problem involved in this study is to analyze the physical and instructional facilities of the Negro high schools of Tennessee that made annual reports to the State High School Supervisor in 1931 seeking approval of the State Department of Education; to compare the findings with the standards for approval that are set up by the Tennessee State Department of Education and the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States; and to compare these findings with similar items for certain types of white high schools in the state, where figures are available for comparison.

Limitations of the Study. This study included only the twenty-four county Negro high schools in Tennessee that made annual reports to the State High School Inspector seeking approval of the State Department of Education. There are forty-five additional county Negro high schools and a number of private and city high schools that did not seek approval by the State Department of Education.

Source of Data. The data for this study were gathered largely from the high school principals' annual reports in the

files of the State High School Supervisor, publications of the State Department of Education, publications of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, and theses and bulletins in the Peabody College library.

Technique Used in the Study. The method used in treating the data collected in this study was analytical and comparative, the data being presented in tabular form. Many tables contain data for the Negro schools and a statement of the state and Southern Association requirements for the factors enumerated.

Findings and Conclusions. Prior to 1917 the records for Negro high schools were kept in such manner that it was not possible to secure adequate data for the study. During that year there were 253 children enrolled in the county high schools for Negroes in Tennessee and since that time rapid progress has been made. In 1925 there were twenty-four public high schools for Negroes in the state and in 1931 there were sixty-nine county high schools, and a number of private and city high schools in addition.

The first negro high school was approved by the State High School Supervisor in 1920; in 1931 twenty-four sought approval and twenty-three of them were approved. Four of these schools were given an "A" rating, eight a "B" rating, and eleven a "C" rating. These schools had a total enrollment of 2020 pupils, over 300 of whom were graduated. In 1931 the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools approved for the first time Negro colleges and secondary schools. Twenty secondary schools were placed on the approved list but none of them were in Tennessee.

All of the twenty-four county high schools for Negroes included in this study were in session 178 days during the school year and required 120 or more clock hours for one-unit of credit in a course. Fifteen had daily schedules with seven periods and nine had eight periods daily; in seven schools the periods were forty minutes in length and in seventeen they were forty-five minutes; seven provided eighty to eighty-nine minutes for laboratory periods while seventeen provided ninety minutes or more for this type of instructional period.

All of these schools offered sixteen or more recitation pe-

riods each day, thus meeting the minimum requirement of the Southern Association in this respect.

The median enrollment for the schools was 68.7 and the range from 34 to 249. Three schools had ten or fewer pupils per teacher, two had thirty-one or more pupils per teacher while the median enrollment per teacher for the group was 18.7.

Seventeen of the schools were housed in brick buildings and seven in frame buildings; thirteen were heated by steam, one by hot air and ten by stoves. Ventilation was through the windows in nineteen buildings, by windows and transoms in one, and by windows and wall exits in one, and was not reported for three buildings.

Twenty-three of the schools reporting had special rooms for libraries, six had gymnasiums, twenty-three had auditoriums, twelve had study halls and nineteen had principal's offices.

Water was obtained from the system in eighteen schools, from wells in four, from cisterns in one, and the source was not reported by one, and sanitary drinking facilities were reported by twenty-three schools.

The median of play space for the twenty-four schools was 2.8 acres and the range from one acre or less to eight acres.

Sixteen schools reported laboratory equipment for teaching general science, twelve for biology, seventeen for chemistry, eleven for physics, twenty-four for home economics, nine for agriculture and ten for the manual arts. One school reported 200 or fewer books in the library, one reported more than 2000, and the median was 600.

A teaching force of three to four teachers was reported by six schools; five to six teachers by fourteen schools; seven to eight teachers by two schools; nine to ten by one school; and eleven to twelve by one school. Three-fourths or more of the teachers in twenty-two schools were college graduates while in two schools fewer than this proportion were college graduates.

Salaries paid the 113 teachers included in the study ranged from \$540.00 to \$2,160.00 per year with a median salary of \$850.00. Nine of these teachers taught two periods daily, and three taught eight periods daily. The median teaching load was 5.3 periods daily.

There were a total of 508 classes taught in these schools and twenty-five of them had from one to five pupils in them while eight classes were larger than 35 pupils. The median class size was 18.5.

The State Department requires that every high school offer at least one of the curricula outlined in the *Manual*. One school reported that it was offering none of these curricula, twenty that they were offering one of them and three that they were offering two of them. Three of the schools offered courses not outlined in the *Manual*.

Three units of English were offered in one school and twenty-three schools offered four units. In Latin, three schools offered one unit, two offered ten units, three offered three units and three offered four units. One unit of French was offered in two schools and two units in six schools.

General science was available to the pupils in seventeen schools, biology in eleven, chemistry in eighteen and physics in eleven. All of the twenty-four schools reported that they were offering home economics.

All of the schools studied failed to meet the state requirement for the area of playgrounds and some failed to meet the requirement with respect to the number of teachers employed, college training of teachers, certification of teachers, number of curricula offered, laboratory equipment, subjects offered for credit, and the number of units of English offered. All of them met all other requirements. Southern Association requirements were met in many respects by all of the schools but no school met all of them.

A number of comparisons with the white high schools of Tennessee are noted. Among them we find:

1. The schools studied seem to be better equipped than the C-grade white high schools in the following respects: Number of class periods in the daily schedule; heating of buildings; material of which buildings are constructed; number of library rooms and auditoriums; source of water supply; number of volumes in the library; per cent of schools offering physics and chemistry, and the number of units of home economics offered.

2. They seem to be about on a par with the C-grade white high schools in these respects: Length of class period,

system of records, per cent of teachers with college degrees, and number of units of algebra, plane geometry, and American history offered.

3. They are more poorly equipped than C-grade white schools with regard to the following items: Length of laboratory period, number of gymnasiums and study halls, area of campus, annual salary of teachers, and the number of units of general science, biology and English offered.

4. The schools of this study are better equipped than the A-grade white schools of Tennessee with respect to these items: Number of library rooms and auditoriums, source of water supply, and the per cent of schools offering chemistry and physics.

5. They are about on a par with the A-grade white high schools of the state with regard to the length of class period, system of records, per cent of teachers with college degrees, and the number of units of algebra, plane geometry, and American history offered.

6. These schools are more poorly equipped than the A-grade schools with respect to length of laboratory period, enrollment, material of which buildings are constructed, heating of buildings, area of campus, number of volumes in the library, and the annual salary of teachers.

7. The schools of this study seem to be better equipped than the high schools of Tennessee that are members of the Southern Association with regard to the number of schools having special library rooms, sanitary drinking arrangements and the number of college hours of professional training of the teachers employed; they seem to be about on a par with regard to length of class periods, and the per cent of teachers holding college degrees; and they seem to be more poorly equipped with respect to the number of auditoriums, gymnasiums, and study halls, the number of volumes in libraries, newspapers and magazines, and the annual salaries of teachers.

The writer states that he found the schools studied to be better equipped from the standpoint of physical and instructional facilities than he expected to find them when he began the study. He found that they are making rapid progress and

is of the opinion that it will be only a short time until some of them will be approved by the Southern Association.

Certain philanthropic agencies have done much toward raising the standards of the schools studied.

6. Vaughan, Thomas Grady. *Evaluation of Instruction in Sixty-seven Surveys*. August, 1931. Pp. 109.

Problem. The purpose of this study was to examine the reports of surveys found in George Peabody College for Teachers library to determine the methods used to evaluate instruction and to appraise the methods used.

Limitations of the Study. Not all the reports of surveys made up to the present time were available. Sacwell, in his study of surveys, lists one hundred eighty-one surveys made from 1910 to 1927. Some of the reports of surveys do not make clear the methods used in collecting data in evaluating instruction, but merely describe their findings and make recommendations.

Source of Data. A list was made of all the surveys cataloged in George Peabody College for Teachers library. Thirty-seven surveys that were examined in a previous study were not included in this study. The remaining survey reports were examined to determine the methods used to evaluate the efficiency of instruction. In all eighty-one survey reports examined, fourteen contained no evaluation of teaching. Three survey reports listed were not found.

Technique Used in the Study. Sixty-seven surveys were examined and careful notes made on those sections concerned with evaluation of instruction. In chapter II the methods of evaluating instruction found in the surveys are described and appraised. The survey reviews are arranged in alphabetical order by years beginning with the earliest. Selected sentences and paragraphs from each survey are quoted to show the basis for determining the methods used in measuring the efficiency of instruction.

Findings and Conclusions.

1. The ways most often used to evaluate instruction in the sixty-seven surveys examined were as follows:

a. Study of teaching personnel.....	58
b. Standard tests.....	42
c. Pupil accounting.....	35
d. General impression through observation.....	32
e. General impression through conference.....	14
f. Rating scale and check-list.....	11
g. Criteria for judging.....	8
h. Analysis of lesson plans.....	2
i. Analysis of pupils' written work.....	2
j. Miscellaneous	19

2. Most of the later surveys employ standard tests in evaluating instruction. For instance, of twenty-four surveys made during the period, 1927 to 1930, standard tests were given in eighteen. In only two of the other six surveys was any attempt made to measure teaching efficiency except by studying teaching personnel and pupil accounting.

3. The survey staffs of the later surveys seemed to realize the limitations of evaluating teaching only by giving standard tests as is evidenced by the fact that out of eighteen using standard tests, twelve attempted to evaluate the actual teaching by observation or checklist.

4. The methods used to evaluate teaching efficiency by observation of the classroom instruction were highly subjective.

7. Worthy, Haley Dewey. *Financial Safeguards for Current School Expenditures*. June, 1929. Pp. 78.

Problem. The purpose of this investigation is to analyze the various factors of a system of records and reports, the budget, the accounting system, and the system of supply and equipment management and show how these instruments are adequate financial safeguards of the current expenditures.

Limitations of the Study. Information was furnished by ten of the superintendents of the largest school systems in Mississippi. The other information was broader in scope.

Source of Data. In order to make this study information furnished by ten of the superintendents of the largest school

systems in Mississippi was used; practices of business concerns and the recommendations of those who have made careful studies of financial practices in schools were drawn upon; and a survey of the literature in the field of school administration was made.

Technique Used in the Study. The normative and historical methods of making the study were used. The superintendents were asked to furnish information concerning records and reports, budgeting, accounting, and supply and equipment management. Opinions and practices of business concerns and educators and administrators through their publications were the chief sources of the study.

Findings and Conclusions. A system of records and reports as analyzed and discussed in this study is an adequate financial safe-guard of current expenditures by aiding in the scientific development of budgeting, cost accounting, and the administration of funds; revealing true economy in the operation and maintenance of schools; assisting in the checking of forecasts with reality; presenting statistical data which show certain changes in financial condition; and furnishing records which are necessary in answering certain required questions periodically.

A sound budgetary procedure is an adequate financial safe-guard because it provides a sound practice through which effective, businesslike management can result; furnishes an important bearing on accounting control; shows the purposes for which the funds are to be used; reveals detailed information concerning school costs; prevents unnecessary financial surplus for any item; and helps coordinate the educational plans with the financial plan.

An ample system of accounting is a financial safeguard of current expenditures because it provides a complete system of financial records; secures uniformity of classification and accounting procedure throughout the country; provides for clear audits; secures protection by bonding officials and depositaries; and serves as one method of diagnosing the situation and locating irregularities in management.

An adequate system of supply and equipment management is a safeguard of the current expenditures since it requires a

classification and standardization of supplies and equipment, budgetary control, a definite purchasing procedure, a system of storage and distribution, insurance, and a plan of textbook management.

8. Bentley, Imogene. *Secondary Education Courses in Southern State Teachers Colleges*. August, 1932. Pp. 74.

Problem. To determine (1) the status of secondary education courses in Southern State Teachers Colleges, and (2) what the course Principles of Secondary Education implies as to subject matter according to the texts used and the way each teacher treats in his class the topics included in the course.

Limitations of the Study. The study is confined to those courses which either by title or catalog description, and opinion of the head of each education department were shown to be directly related to the field of Secondary Education. The information given in the information blanks concerning the texts and references used was not clear because in some cases the text had not been selected, and in other courses where no text was used specific references were not given.

Only courses that were given in the catalogs of colleges that were listed as State Teachers Colleges and as members of the Association in the Proceedings of the Thirty-fifth Annual Meeting of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States were considered in the study.

Sources of Data. College catalogs, information blanks that were sent to the heads of education departments, and check lists that were sent to the teachers of the courses pertaining to Principles of Secondary Education were the sources of the data used in this study.

Technique Used in the Study. The information gathered from catalogues was arranged in sixteen tables; that secured from information blanks sent to heads of the education departments in the different colleges was arranged in one table; that gathered from the check list sent to the teachers of the course "Principles of Secondary Education" in one table. Most of the tables dealt with titles of courses and textbooks used. Table XVI was an analysis of the catalog description of the courses.

Table XVIII showed how each teacher treats in his class the various topics that might be included in the course on Principles of Secondary Education. All the tables were analyzed and interpreted. Chapter II of the thesis reviewed other studies of a similar nature.

Findings and Conclusions. In the twenty-two state teachers colleges studied, the number of courses offered in secondary education in each college ranged from five to sixteen, the median number of courses being nine. There was no set form followed in the different catalogs concerning the description of the courses.

From the study made of the textbooks used in each course it was found that for each of the twelve groups of courses, many different texts were used and in some cases no text was used.

The course Principles of Secondary Education denotes a different course in different colleges. Topics included in the course were treated as the instructor sees fit and little uniformity of practice was observed.

9. Lever, Ira Baxter. *Teacher Certification in the South*. August, 1926. Pp. 80.

Problem. The problem of this study is to show the qualifications necessary for teacher certification in the South.

Limitations of the Study. The study is limited to the state laws or bulletins on teacher certification up to 1926, or the most recent legislation concerning certification.

Sources of Data. Laws or bulletins on certification from each of the Southern states provided the only source of data.

Technique Used in the Study. The normative method was used. The author attempted to find out what the status for 1926 was concerning certification of teachers in the South. Such items as the kinds of certificates, by whom issued, length of validation, where valid, renewal requirements, and experience were considered. The minimum age and fees, the revocation, and reciprocal relations of the different Southern states were also taken up.

Findings and Conclusions.

1. The kind of certificates vary in the different states, ranging from five in Tennessee to fifteen in North Carolina.
2. The issuing of certificates in most cases had been intrusted to the state commissioner of education, or the state board of education. They are valid throughout the state except a few that are issued in counties. The validity ranges anywhere from six months county certificate (Arkansas) to life certificates in all states except Virginia.
3. The higher the value of the certificate the greater the amount of preparation is necessary. In order to renew certificates most states require summer school work or reading circle work.
4. The minimum age is 17 years (Arkansas and Florida do not specify an age limit) but most states require the applicant to be 18 years of age.
5. Fees for certificates range from fifty cents to ten dollars. North Carolina and South Carolina do not require a fee.
10. McLinn, Edward Silver. *Subject Matter and Professional Preparation of High School Teachers in West Virginia.* August, 1932. Pp. 86.

Problem. The purpose of this study was to ascertain the subject matter and professional preparation of the academic high school teachers of West Virginia.

Limitations of the Study. The investigation was limited to a study of the subject matter and professional preparation of high school teachers of: English, French, Chemistry, Spanish, History, Mathematics, Latin, and Physics, in the state of West Virginia. The study presents data obtained from canvassing all first, second, and third class high schools for whites in West Virginia, as listed by the State Department of Public Instruction. Replies were received from 901 of the 1700 or more schools. Six hundred forty-eight of these replies were checked by the colleges attended by the several teachers.

Sources of Data. Data were secured from the replies to the questionnaires sent to the high school teachers in the 1700 or more high schools of West Virginia, and from the college records of 648 of those replying.

Technique Used in the Study. The questionnaire type of inquiry was used and this was further checked by writing to colleges for the official record of credit hours earned in Education and in subject matter courses by the teachers who had filled out the questionnaires. The teachers were classified according to subject or subjects taught. Distributions were made in each classification showing mean and median semester hours in the subject taught and in education. The standard deviation was shown in each case. The results in each classification were compared with the minimum requirements of the North Central Association of High Schools and Colleges and of the State Department of Public Instruction of West Virginia.

Findings and Conclusions:

1. On the basis of semester hours or quarter hours of credit in Education and in the subject a teacher was teaching at the time the study was made, it would seem that teachers would rank professionally as follows (from best to poorest): 1. English; 2. French; 3. Chemistry; 5. Spanish; 6. History; 7. Mathematics; 8. Latin; 9. Physics.
2. Nearly 8 per cent of the teachers were teaching on less than five semester hours of preparation in subject matter, 24.7 were teaching on less than ten semester hours, 40.6 had less than fifteen hours' preparation.
3. Professional preparation of these teachers was much better since only 18.6 per cent had less than ten semester hours in Education, 30.5 per cent had less than fifteen hours, and 40.4 per cent less than twenty hours.
4. The study reveals that one out of four teachers is teaching in one field only; 36 per cent must make preparation in two fields; 25 per cent in three fields; and 14.5 per cent in four or more fields.
5. Teachers with least subject matter preparation are called upon to teach the greatest range of subjects.
6. There is a tendency for teachers to take but one line of work.

Recommendations.

1. West Virginia should set up minimum subject matter requirements for all its high school teachers.

2. Definite combinations of subjects should be established.
3. The number of subjects a teacher may teach should be definitely limited to the established teaching combinations.
4. Teacher should not be allowed to teach a high school subject for credit when the teacher herself has had not more than equivalent high school credit.
5. Closer cooperation between high school principals, superintendents, teacher training institutions, and institutions concerned with training, certification, and placement of teachers, in order to avoid large numbers of teachers having to teach three or more subjects.
6. Consolidation of small schools into larger ones so as to prevent teachers having to teach so many different fields.

11. Williams, Mary Sheppard. *A Study of Teacher-Training in the Florida High Schools.* August, 1931. Pp. 62.

Problem. The problem of this thesis is to study the establishment, functioning and output of the teacher-training departments in Florida high schools in relation to the present supply and demand for teachers, and to determine whether there is still a need for these departments.

Sources of Data. The data for this study were gathered from the Laws of Florida; The Biennial Reports of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Florida; the Annual Reports of County Superintendents in Florida to the State Superintendents for 1929-1930; records in the office of the State Supervisor of Teacher-Training in Florida; bulletins from the State Department of Education; questionnaires to high school teacher-training departments operated in Florida in 1929-1930; rating scales filled out by county superintendents and supervisors employing graduates of high school teacher-training departments; personal letters from the State Superintendent to nine colleges in Florida used in this study; Report of the Florida Educational Survey Commission; and, personal observation while serving in the capacity of State Supervisor of Teacher-Training in Florida.

Technique Used in the Study. The data were treated by very simple methods, only medians, averages and percentages were calculated because there appeared to be no practical value for a more complex treatment. The writer surveyed teacher-training conditions up to 1915, when teacher-training departments were established by law in Florida high schools, she gave the state laws and the regulations of the State Board of Education governing these departments, and she studied the graduates of the teacher-training departments for the school year of 1929-1930 with regard to what they did in 1930-1931. In addition to this she made a study of the 1929-1930 graduates of all teacher-training courses of the colleges of Florida recognized by the State Department of Education for certification, and she also made a study of all teachers in Florida during 1929-1930 in regard to training. With these data in hand she drew her conclusions and made recommendations.

Findings and Conclusions. The conditions which led to the establishment in Florida high schools of teacher-training departments are depicted by the training status of the 5187 teachers employed in Florida public schools in 1912-1913. At that time 19 per cent had graduated from normal school or college, 24 per cent held certificates based on examinations on high school subjects, and 57 per cent held certificates based upon examinations on elementary subjects. For the white teachers the percentages for these items were 20, 29, and 51 per cent, respectively, and for the negro teachers they were 14, 8, and 78 per cent, respectively.

In 1915 the legislature of Florida passed a law authorizing the establishment of one teacher-training department in one high school in each county of the state under such rules as the State Board of Education might adopt. The Board was authorized to appropriate \$500.00 annually to each department provided the county would appropriate an equal or a greater amount in order to secure a competent teacher. In 1923 the certificate law granted graduates of these departments first grade teachers' certificates and the certificate law of 1927 granted them second grade certificates. The legislature of 1931 abolished the teacher-training departments in high schools.

While the teacher-training departments were maintained in the high schools the State Department of Public Instruction

exercised supervision over them and carried out the regulations of the State Board of Education. In 1927 the position of State Supervisor of Teacher-Training was created and the writer of this thesis served in that capacity until her resignation in 1930.

In general the aims of the teacher-training departments in Florida high schools were to encourage those who will teach without college training to graduate from high school and thereby to raise the standard of the training of teachers to the level of high school graduation, to give to such students an elementary professional training, and to orient the subject of teaching in order to encourage more students to enter teachers' courses in college.

On the whole the counties of the state were slow in taking advantage of the opportunity for training teachers in the high schools. However, when the law of 1927 provided for teacher-training departments in negro high schools they developed more rapidly than they had in the white high schools. Between 1923 and 1930 certificates were granted to 1024 graduates of high school teacher-training departments.

A study was made of the graduates of the teacher-training departments for the school year 1929-1930 and it was found that 50 per cent of them taught school during the following year, 20 per cent would have taught if they could have secured positions and 10 per cent went to college for further training. Fifty-one per cent of the white graduates who taught worked in schools of two to five teachers and 54 per cent of the negro graduates worked in one-teacher schools. Eighty-seven per cent of the white and 73 per cent of the negro teacher-training graduates who taught worked the first year in the county in which they were trained. The average salary paid these beginning teachers was 20 to 30 per cent less than the average salaries paid over the state as a whole. The county superintendents and supervisors rated these graduates of teacher-training departments B (good) in their first year of teaching. The writer concluded, from the data secured, that too few of the graduates of teacher-training departments attended summer school to begin college training before beginning to teach.

In the school year 1929-1930 there were 766 white graduates from Florida colleges and universities eligible for graduate certificates and of this number 492 taught in 1930-1931. 472 of

them in Florida. There were eighty-four negro graduates eligible for certificates and seventy-nine of them taught in 1930-1931, all of them in Florida. The writer concludes that only 65 per cent of the teachers graduated from Florida colleges in 1929-1930 went into active teaching service. Assuming that that year is typical and further assuming upon reliable evidence, that experience justifies the expectancy that approximately 15 per cent of the graduates will not teach during the first year after graduation, she concludes that Florida is losing 20 per cent more of her trained teachers the first year after graduation than experience in the field predicts.

The writer found that of the 8654 white teachers employed during 1929-1930, 38 per cent had graduated from college, 21 per cent from normal school, 31 per cent from high school and 10 per cent had less than high school training. Of the 2306 negro teachers employed that year, 14 per cent had graduated from college, 21 per cent from normal school, 31 per cent from high school, and 34 per cent had less than high school training. For the total of 10960 teachers employed in the state that year these percentages were 33, 21, and 15, respectively.

In answering the question whether or not the teacher-training departments in Florida high schools should be continued, the writer assumes as basic the principles that every state should train its own teachers and that the minimum training for elementary teachers should be two years above high school and for high school teachers four years above high school.

Although Florida ranks high among the southern states in regard to these standards, there are still 885 or 10 per cent, of the white teachers and 786, or 34 per cent, of the negro teachers who have graduated from high school but not from normal school.

If all of the graduates from all of the college teacher-training agencies could be employed each year to replace teachers who now have less than two years of college training it would require five years for the white and eighteen years for the negroes to eliminate all teachers now under standard of training. However, by using the graduates of high school teacher-training departments to replace teachers with less than high school training all white teachers could be brought up to the standard within four years. By using the present college and high school facilities for training negro teachers it would require

fourteen years to bring all negro teachers up to the desired standard.

Recommendations. In consideration of these, and other data, the writer recommends, among other things, that certification of teachers by examination be discontinued and that all certificates be issued on the basis of training, making the high school teacher-training certificate the lowest form issued.

That the high school teacher-training departments be continued as they existed at the time the study was made and that at least seven additional departments be provided for negro students.

That these departments be continued until such time that all teachers in Florida meet the desirable minimum standards.

That, as soon as possible, graduates from the private negro colleges in Florida be certificated.

12. Hounchell, Paul. *A Study of State and National High School Athletic Associations.* August, 1925. Pp. 104.

Problem. The purpose of this study was two-fold; first, to find what were the plans for operation of the various associations, from a study of the printed matter in use; second, to discover what standards of eligibility for athletes were set up as aims of the association.

Limitations of the Study. The study dealt with the active state high school athletic associations in forty-three states of the United States.

Sources of Data. There were two principal sources of data used in this study: the constitutions and other printed matter then in use by the different state organizations; and, questionnaires seeking more specific and detailed information which were returned to the writer by officials and others in a position to know of the operation of the various state associations.

Technique Used in the Study. All findings were compiled under logical heads, covering nearly 200 points of organizations or rules, then arranged in chapters with fact tables and discussions in an orderly sequence. After a brief historical sketch, there was detailed treatment of data related to the general nature of the associations, plans for government, administrative

problems and eligibility rules. The actual findings were summarized in one chapter, recommended improvements appeared in another, and the total results of the study were given in still another chapter assuming the form of a composite constitution for any state athletic association.

Findings and Conclusions. The writer found that the state high school athletic association movement had been developing for a period of about 25 years and that in 1925 the movement was more pronounced than at any previous time. At that time forty-three states had associations.

These associations operated under a variety of names, but the most common form gave the name of the state followed by the words "High School Athletic Association". Eleven aims for association work were found, and all had to do with regulation, standardization, and raising the ideals of high school sport. The state officers were unanimous in their judgment that the aims were being realized. Public accredited high schools could belong to all the associations and about half of them admitted private schools. A majority of the associations fostered girls' sports, but as a rule included only basketball. Some of the associations in the Southern states managed literary contests. All of the 43 associations had three or more of the leading four sports—football, basketball, baseball and field-track contests.

Nearly all of the associations provided definite dates for the business year to begin, for the payment of dues and for the annual business meeting, which was usually held in connection with some state educational meeting. As a rule the officers were a president, a vice-president and a secretary-treasurer, but the actual handling of the affairs of the association was in the hands of a governing committee consisting of from three to seventeen members. In twelve states district boards were an integral part of the association. Usually officers and boards were elected by the membership at large at the annual meeting and the term of office was for one, two, or three years.

The associations were financed by the initiation fees and annual dues, and from a share of the net receipts from district and state athletic meets. Expenditures were approved by the president or the governing body, systematic records were kept, accounts audited and financial reports printed. The secretary-

treasurer as a rule kept all records and made reports from time to time as needed. Protests could be filed at any time and in all cases the governing body of the association was the final authority in resulting decisions. Violations of regulations were punished by suspensions of varying length but in some states they were punished by fines. Scheduled games had to be played, even if there were questions for protests. Eligibility lists of players were exchanged by principals from one to ten days before any game, contracts had to be made on prescribed forms which made the rules a part of the contract, and it was required that a responsible faculty representative accompany the teams on all trips. Nearly half the states had approved lists of officials. At the time this study was made, a large number of the states did not require that the coach be a member of the teaching staff and be paid exclusively by the school. However, the writer noted a tendency in that direction in most of the states.

In general, the eligibility of players was governed by rules setting forth the following requirements: enrollment previous to the 20th day of the semester; transferred pupils ineligible for one semester, unless transfer was due to change of residence by parents or legal guardian; scholarship requirement of at least 15 hours of passing work for the present and past semester were set up by all but eight associations, three had lower requirements and one had no scholarship requirement at all; pupils were restricted to four years of participation in high school athletics; the 21st birthday was the upper age limit for participation in 34 states, the 20th in four, and four states permitted participation under certain conditions up to the age of twenty-two.

Amendments to the constitution could be effected by a two-thirds vote of the representatives present at any annual meeting, but about half the associations required that proposed amendments be published not less than 10 days before they were passed upon.

The writer found that the National Association consisted of a federation of twenty member state associations. Its objects were two-fold: first, to set up minimum essentials of eligibility for interstate competition; second, to provide machinery for administration of inter-state athletics, particularly national sectional tournaments.

Recommendations. The writer devoted one chapter to recommendations covering specific points. Among the recommendations made were: that private schools be admitted to membership in the associations on the same basis as public schools; that girls' athletics be not abolished but be conducted under special regulations; that the districts be given more power in the management of the affairs of the association; that an executive secretary be employed by each association; that coaches be members of the faculty and be paid from school funds only; that post-season games be prohibited and that all contests between teams representing member schools be played under the association regulations, regardless of whether the teams went under the name of "scrub", "second team" or any like designation.

The closing chapter of the thesis was a proposed "model constitution embracing the essential tendencies found in a study of the 43 state association constitutions, with recommended improvements."

13. Huck, Clarence Alvey. *Financing Inter-School Athletics in the Public High Schools of Nebraska*. June, 1932. Pp. 60.

Problem. This study was attempted for the purpose: (1) of discovering what methods are being used in financing inter-school athletics in the public high schools of Nebraska, with the major emphasis on management and safeguarding athletic funds; (2) making an analytical study of the principles and practices for financing inter-school athletics as set forth by writers in this field; (3) offering recommendations for improving the methods now in use.

Limitations of the Study. These limitations are noted by the writer: (1) the study deals only with the financing of inter-school athletics in the four-year high schools of Nebraska; (2) in some cases the problem of differentiating between inter-school and intra-mural athletics was difficult, in these cases a careful estimate was made as accurately as possible with the available data; (3) very little comprehensive material is available which deals directly with the problem of this study; (4) the check lists used in securing data from the individual schools included in the study were sent to the heads of 517 public high

schools, and of this number 286, or 55.1 per cent, were returned.

Sources of Data. The data employed in the study were secured from: (1) the Nebraska School Laws; (2) replies to check lists sent to the superintendents of the four-year public high schools of Nebraska; (3) writings of others who have made studies of similar phases of school work.

Technique Used in the Study. The School Laws of Nebraska were studied carefully to determine what, if any, provisions were made for the handling and safeguarding of athletic funds. All available literature in the field was read and such parts of it as seemed applicable to the problem were considered in summarizing the findings for this portion of the study. Check lists were sent to the heads of 517 public four-year high schools in Nebraska and 285, or 55.1 per cent, were returned, and the data contained in these check lists were analyzed.

It was found that the state school laws provided that every school treasurer shall be bonded to an amount equal to that for which he is responsible at any one time. While no direct mention was made of the athletic treasurer it was implied that he was included, inasmuch as all school moneys are public funds. Few schools complied with this provision.

Of the 520 four-year public high schools of the state, 95.8 per cent of them maintained an inter-school athletic program. The size of the institution had little to do in determining its athletic policy.

The writer found that the cost of inter-school athletics had a wide range; in 83.7 per cent of the cases reported the cost is less than \$1000.00 a year, while in 4.4 per cent of the cases reported the cost is more than \$2000.00 per year. The mode for the cost is between \$200 and \$300 per year. Fifty-two and two-tenths of the schools reporting maintained an inter-school athletic program which is self-supporting, but 34.2 per cent of them reported a deficit in the athletic treasury. These deficits were made up by staging benefit programs of various kinds or by appropriations from the regular school budgets.

It was stated by the writer that "fifty per cent of the public school administrators favor some plan by which inter-school

athletics might be made an integral part of the school program and thus financed through the regular school budget".

The mode of salaries paid coaches of public high schools is \$1350.00.

Seven and four-tenths of the schools reporting received aid from outside organizations for financing inter-school athletics, but the amounts received were, in most cases, so small as to be negligible.

As a rule, the management of athletic funds was delegated either to the superintendent or to the principal, or to both jointly. Generally the funds secured from athletic contests were used to support the athletic program, but in some instances other extra-curricular activities were also financed with these funds.

The writer considers that the worst conditions found in the entire inter-school athletic set-up was that of not safeguarding the athletic funds by bonding the official in charge of them.

A number of schools reported loss of funds through bank failures and some through mismanagement by incompetent and unscrupulous officials in charge of athletic funds.

Summarizing the literature of the field, it was found that nearly all writers were in accord that inter-school athletics should be placed on a business-like basis, with modern systems of accounting, scientific budgeting, and proper safeguarding of athletic funds. They also agreed that tag days, school carnivals and like activities should be discouraged in financing inter-school athletics because they cheapen the purpose for which the funds are collected.

Recommendations. The writer recommends that:

1. The inter-school athletic program be made an integral part of the regular school program and considered as a part of the physical education program; but in no instance should the athletic program be considered a substitute for the physical education program itself.
2. That the inter-school program be financed through the regular school budget.
3. That the inter-school athletic contests be free to the pupils and the public alike.

4. All inter-school athletic funds be properly budgeted and that this budget be adhered to by officials.
5. A modern system of financial accounting be introduced and maintained for the management of inter-school athletic funds.
6. All inter-school athletic financial accounting records be periodically audited, that annual reports be made by the proper officials, and that financial accounting records be open at all time for inspection.
7. The official in charge of the school funds be bonded for an amount equal to the largest sum under his control at any one time.
8. The coach be required to make requisition for supplies and equipment and that this requisition be reviewed and checked by the principal and approved by the superintendent.
9. Athletic contracts be arranged and drawn up by the principal and approved by the superintendent, and that the coach act in an advisory capacity in this connection.
10. Tag-days, school carnivals, solicitations and the like activities should not be tolerated either for advertising purposes or for securing funds.
11. That the coach be employed on the basis of his professional training and experience, that he be a full-time teacher, paid by the board of education, and that his salary be consistent with the salary scale of the regular teachers in the system.
14. Elam, Margaret Jewell. *An Appraisal of Programs of Co-Curricular Activities*. June, 1930. Pp. 98.
Problem. The problem of this thesis is two-fold: (1) to select appropriate criteria that have been used by educational authorities with which to evaluate the program of co-curricular activities; (2) to evaluate the program of co-curricular activities in the light of the criteria chosen.

Limitations of the Study.

1. This study is confined to literature written in the field of co-curricular activities and published in educational journals and magazines during the period 1910-1930.
2. Only those educational journals and magazines on the subscription list of the library of George Peabody College for Teachers were included.
3. No articles dealing with the financing of co-curricular organization, with the purely administrative phase of co-curricular programs, or with the honorary societies in secondary schools were included.

Sources of Data. The data for this thesis were taken from educational journals and magazines of the period 1910-1930 and found in the files of George Peabody College for Teachers library.

Technique Used in the Study. The historical and normative methods are used. A survey of literature in the field of co-curricular activities was made to establish criteria. A study was made of present co-curricular programs. Based upon the criteria, these present programs were evaluated.

Findings and Conclusions:

1. By table it may be shown what per cent of the 188 articles read contributed to each of the "Cardinal Aims of Secondary Education":

	Per Cent	AIM—
1.	52.91	Health
2.	46.07	Command of Fundamental Processes
3.	65.73	Vocational Education
4.	56.74	Worthy Use of Leisure
5.	65.83	Worthy Home Membership
6.	86.03	Citizenship
7.	44.4	Ethical Character

2. Three studies examined—the Kansas City, Missouri, study, that of Kenosha, Wisconsin, and the Illinois study—all tend to the same conclusion, namely, that participation in co-curricular activities does not weaken the scholarship of the participants, but rather tends to strengthen it.

3. Probably if co-curricular activities were suppressed, more pupils would leave school so we cannot yet decide the de-

sirability of co-curricular activities on the basis of the above study. However, the data seem to indicate that co-curricular activities are beneficial rather than detrimental to the school studies.

4. The evidence adduced points to the fact that high school pupils of somewhat more than average intelligence participate in co-curricular activities, but the number of pupils represented in the study are too few to serve as a basis for final judgment.

5. There is an abundance of subjective evidence that the program of co-curricular activities contributes to character-building; however, there is no objective evidence to this effect.

15. Agnew, Jesse Sullivan. *The Relation of New-Type Examinations to Study Habits*. June, 1930. Pp. 91.

Problem. The problem as stated in this study is to investigate the apparent changes, if any, in the study habits of high school boys by the continued use of the new-type examinations.

Limitations of the Study. The study was limited by time to the first six months of the school year of 1929-1930. There were thirty pupils involved in the study, divided into two groups and equated by the use of two tests. The senior class in English at Bailey Military Academy at Greenwood, South Carolina was used.

Source of Data. The data were secured from thirty pupils in a Senior English class by means of the experimenter keeping a record of the results obtained from tests given each group.

Technique Used in the Study. Thirty students were given the Otis Self-Administering Test, Higher Examination, Form A, followed later by the Terman Group Intelligence Test, Form A. From the average of raw scores of the two tests, two equivalent groups were formed. One group of fifteen boys was designated as the control group, the other group of fifteen boys as the experimental group. Each group was taught by the experimenter in the same manner as nearly as possible. The control group was given an essay type examination of twelve

minutes' length every class period, while the experimental group was given a new-type examination of the same length according to time. The questions for each group were based upon the same subject matter. Ten special tests were given, namely: (1) General Test on Rhetoric and Grammar; (2) Sentence Recognition Test; (3) General Test on Grammar; (4) Grammar for Correct Speech; (5) Correct Diction Test; (6) Spelling Test; (7) Capital Test; (8) Errors in Composition Test; (9) Reading Comprehension Test; and, (10) Fact Comprehension Test.

Findings and Conclusions. The conclusions derived by the experimenter are:

1. The control group exceeds in ability to study: (a) alone; (b) a definite length of time; (c) the assignment in every subject. They also have the ability to succeed in: (a) General Rhetoric Grammar Test; (b) General Grammar Test; and, (c) Correct Speech.
2. The experimental group exceeds in ability to study: (a) on a definite schedule; (b) with self-reliance; (c) through self-helps; (d) with an enquiring attitude; (e) thoughtfully; (f) sympathetically; and, (g) purposefully. They also exceed in: (a) Sentence Recognition; (b) Correct Diction Test; (c) Spelling Test; (d) Capital Test; (e) Composition Test; (f) Reading Comprehension Test; and, (g) Fact Comprehension Test.
3. The apparent effect tends to show the old-type to be superior for motivating immediate knowledge from day to day and in solving new situations, especially those involving exact knowledge, as in the mechanics of grammar.
4. The new-type is apparently superior for motivating general knowledge and contacts with general reading and comprehension.
5. The new-type, therefore, is superior, based on the average of the Critical Ratio from the twelve tests which were given. The chances are 78 in 100 that the new-type group will exceed the old-type group.

16. Smith, Rufus, Albert. *An Attempt to Measure Scientific Attitudes*. August, 1931. Pp. 60.

Problem. Two things were attempted by the writer in this study: first, to review the available literature dealing with the nature of attitudes, especially the scientific attitudes; and, second, to check the reliability and validity of Curtis' test of scientific attitudes.

Limitations of the Study. The number of subjects in each class level, or school grade is too small to serve as a basis for definite conclusions. The results give only an indication of the validity and reliability of the test. Only two localities are represented and both are in the same section of the country. Classes at upper levels, graduate students, need to be included. Subjects other than school students need to be included. The use of a rating scale in validating a test is highly subjective. The selection of the courses correlated with the test scores was subjective.

Source of Data. The data were secured by reading the available literature for definitions of "attitude" and "scientific attitude", and by the administration of the Curtis test of scientific attitude to 996 subjects in grades ranging from seven to the senior year in college.

Technique Used in the Study. The technique used was that of giving the Curtis test of scientific attitudes to 996 subjects over a wide ability range. After administering the test the items of the test were rearranged and this rearranged test was given two months later. A rating card was worked out for estimating the scientific attitudes of an individual. It was assumed that education develops the scientific attitude. Based on this assumption, the number of hours' credit that each subject had in science, psychology, and mathematics was secured. This number was correlated with the test scores.

Findings and Conclusions.

1. A definite statement of reliability can not be made for at least three reasons: (a) the subjects who took the tests were from only one section of the country and from only one group of that section; (b) only one of the group correlations is high enough to indicate much more than the required reliability for

a group test; and (c) the most important reason is that the group was small.

2. A correlation of $.43 + .13$ was secured from the comparison of the test scores with the writer's "Scientific Attitude Rating Card" scores. The correlation is less than .50 and the probable error is high. The number of subjects is small and from one section of the country.

3. There is little relationship between hours of credit classification, or grades and the score made on the Test of "Scientific Attitudes". It is interesting to note that there is more relationship between the test scores and the classification of the pupils than there is between the test scores and the selected subjects. These results show a slight positive indication that the test is valid.

4. The writer concludes that the results of the investigation indicate that Curtis' Test is more reliable than a mere guess, but not as reliable as a test should be.

17. Vaden, James. *Distribution of the Grades at George Peabody College for Teachers*. June, 1931. Pp. 66.

Problem. The problem of this thesis is to present data to show to what extent the distribution of grades at George Peabody College for Teachers varies according to departments and instructors for the years 1925-1929, and to see to what extent the distribution of grades has remained constant.

Sources of Data. Material for this study was collected directly from the grade sheets turned in by the instructors to the recorder's office. The distribution of these grades is compared with a similar study made by Dr. Peterson in 1918-1920.

Technique Used in the Study. In determining the grade-point of the departments and of the instructors in the various departments the following values were assigned to the grades: A-5; B-4; C-3; D-2; F-1. By grade-point is meant the average value of an instructor's or department's grade after a definite numerical value has been given the different marks. After having valued each mark the grade-point was computed as follows:

(1) Multiply the frequency of each mark by its assigned value.

- (2) Determine the total sum by adding the above points.
- (3) Divide the sum total points by the number of grades given by the instructor.

The total Grade-points were computed by using the total number of A's, B's, C's, D's, and F's, and applying the above method, rather than by averaging the grade-points of the various instructors.

Findings and Conclusions. It was found that the grades do not conform to any proposed distribution of marks. There were few D. and F. grades, and in most instances a large percentage of A and B grades. Some departments had a very large per cent of C grades. This condition was also prevalent in 1918-1920.

Possible explanations of this abnormal distribution of grades are:

1. The unusual examination system at Peabody College.
2. The fact that graduates and undergraduates are registered in the same classes.
3. The lack of sequence in course requirements.
4. The fact that students may remain in class for six weeks term.
5. The use of a three-point grading system.
6. The fact that students are permitted to drop courses at any time during the term.
7. The possibility that all other studies of marks have been based on the marks of teachers whose distributions were not correct.
8. The possibility that Peabody College students are of a superior quality.
9. The possibility that the faculty members at Peabody College are better, and teach rather than fail students.

The writer of the thesis doubts the plausibility of explanations 7, 8, and 9.

18. Van Trump, Ruby. *Standardization and Evaluation of the Rational Learning Tests.* June, 1927. Pp. 22.

Problem. This study is an attempt to evaluate and to standardize for children of a lower age and grade in school a

test which has been used for those of a more advanced age and grade. The test in question is the Rational Learning Test of which Dr. Joseph Peterson is the author. In this study an effort is being made to determine whether or not this test can measure certain factors which the standard intelligence tests cannot take into account.

Limitations of the Study. The following limitations are noted:

1. The test in question is the Rational Learning Test.
2. Two forms of the Rational Learning Test were given to eighty-five six, seven, and eight year old children of Peabody Demonstration School during the school year 1926-1927.

Sources of Data. The data upon which this study is based were secured as follows: Two forms of the Rational Learning Test were given to eighty-five six, seven, and eight year old children of the Peabody Demonstration school during the school year 1926-1927. In fifty of these cases, form one was used first, then followed immediately by form two. In the remaining thirty-five cases, the second form was given after an interval of twenty-one days. The purpose of this change in method was to determine the effect of this delay on the transfer effects from the first to the second application.

Technique Used in the Study. The tests were scored and treated statistically.

Findings and Conclusions. This study shows that the coefficients of reliability are relatively low as compared with the results at other times with the same test.

The size of the difference of the results of the two tests independent of the size of the test units is 1.34 probable error units, with a probable error of .166.

In the tests given where there was no delay, the average number of errors per child for form one is 12.32; for those with twenty-one days' delay, 12.8. In form two with no delay, the average is 13.58; with twenty-one days' delay it is 7.8.

With no delay the average length of time per child required for the completion of form one of the test is 252.2 seconds; after a delay of twenty-one days, the average length of

time is 345 seconds. In form two the average length of time is 331.3 seconds; after a delay of twenty-one days, the average length of time is 156 seconds.

In form one, with no delay, the average number of repetitions per child, is five; with twenty-one days' delay the average number is six. In form two with no delay the average number per child is 5.7; after the delay of twenty-one days the average number is 3.8.

This study shows that except in Kindergarten, the correlations between the rankings the teachers made of the subjects and those secured through the use of the Rational Learning Tests are too low to be significant.

19. Young, Katie Cantrell. *An Evaluation of Certain New Type Tests.* August, 1931. Pp. 85.

Problem. The study aims to give an evaluation of certain new-type tests in a course in methods of teaching in the high school at George Peabody College for Teachers. The study attempts (1) to check the errors made on each test; (2) to check the errors made in giving scores; (3) to determine the pupil difficulty of each test item; (4) to eliminate the poor test items; (5) to compare different approved methods of scoring; (6) to give the opinions, as given by the students of the new-type tests used to measure achievement in the course.

Limitations of the Study. (1) The data no doubt would have been more reliable if the study had been more comprehensive in scope.

(2) Only the test items were studied, other outside factors which might have had effect upon them were not considered.

(3) The number of tests in this study is a limited sampling. Enough complete data were obtained, however, to make possible certain limited conclusions.

Source of Data. There are included in this study nine sets of new-type examination based on the textbook used in the course in methods of teaching in the high school. These nine sets of tests include 708 true-false items, 150 multiple choice items, 7 completion items, 13 opinions of the new-type tests as

achievement tests, and 29 reasons for missing various test-items.

Technique Used in the Study. The data upon which this study is based were secured at George Peabody College for Teachers, during the years of 1928, 1929, 1930, and 1931. New-type tests were administered to the classes in a course in methods of teaching in the high school. The writer attempted to evaluate these objective tests, setting up some definite criteria by which the new-type tests could be evaluated. Criteria as set up for a good examination, for building a good examination, or judging an objective or new-type examination were studied, and the frequency of each criterion tabulated. From the most frequently recurring criteria were set up the criteria by which these tests were evaluated.

In applying these criteria, it was decided to re-check each test-item by the key, take down the errors actually made by the students, tabulating them as "checked errors", "unchecked errors", "correct items checked as errors", "errors in assigning scores", and "omissions". After applying this procedure to each set of tests, they were carefully evaluated by the criteria previously determined.

Findings and Conclusions. All conclusions are based on the present study with its limited sampling.

1. The tests are valid.
2. The tests are reliable as shown by the reliability coefficients. In estimating reliability coefficients, several hundred tests should be used in each calculation.
3. The tests are objective, although there were some errors in checking and assigning scores. The size of the subjective error in checking is very small in comparison with the number measured, the ratio being 1 to 300. The errors in assigning scores were small with exception of two, one an error of ten points, the other an error of eleven points; both were due to an error in subtraction. These errors are small in comparison with the number measured, averaging about one point per four pupils. These errors would make no difference in the majority of cases and little differ-

ence in a very few cases with the ranking of the pupils.

The nine sets of tests in this study are on file in the office in the Department of Secondary Education.

Tables are given to show the possible rearrangement of the tests according to pupil difficulty as shown by the number of pupils to whom the tests were administered, the errors, the number of the test-items, and percentage of failures on each test-item.

20. Albreast, Matilda. "*Methods Used to Evaluate Instruction.*" August, 1930. Pp. 90.

The Problem. To summarize and appraise the methods that have been used to secure significant data about teaching and to determine the methods that comparatively recent school surveys have used to evaluate instruction.

Limitations of the Study. Only a part of the material available on the evaluation of instruction and teacher rating was included in the study and only 37 school surveys were studied.

Sources of Data. About ten recognized authorities on methods of evaluating instruction and thirty-seven school surveys were found in the Peabody Library.

Techniques Used in the Study. 1. Methods of evaluation of teaching as found in literature were classified under three heads: a. rating scales, b. standardized tests, c. teacher and pupil activity. Four conclusions as to the relative merit of them were drawn.

2. Sections were taken from the 37 school surveys studied that indicate the methods used by the various survey staffs in determining the character of instruction. The methods used were arranged in the form of a table showing the number of times each method was used, and the method used by each survey staff.

Findings and Conclusions.

1. From the literature examined all agree that there is need for some objective method of rating teachers but they do not agree on the observable characteristics of instruction.

2. There is increasingly a greater demand for a satisfactory means of measuring the actual teaching process.
3. The score card method of rating seems to be the most generally used device in recent studies.
4. In school surveys, the method of appraising instruction most generally used in "general impression".
5. Many attempts to evaluate instruction have been nothing more than descriptions of the classroom procedures.
6. Less space is given in recent surveys to a discussion of instruction. This is probably due to the fact that there is a greater demand for an objective method of measurement of classroom procedure.

21. Emmons, Spencer Ray. *To Evaluate a Supervisory Program*. August, 1931. Pp. 219.

Problem. The purpose of this study is to evaluate a supervisory program inaugurated in the high schools of Webster Parish, Louisiana.

Limitations of the Study. The following limitations are noted:

1. The study was confined to one school.
2. The study was confined to ten teachers.
3. Evaluation of learning exercises is not entirely objective.
4. Evaluation of responses made by pupils is not entirely objective.
5. Determining whether a pupil is attentive is more or less subjective.

Source of Data. The data upon which the study is based were secured at Springhill, Louisiana. Ten teachers and approximately three hundred pupils were used. Data were collected over a period of seven months during the school year of 1929-1930.

Technique Used in the Study. The program was inaugurated according to the following outline:

1. Secure data on which to evaluate teaching by:
 - a. An analysis of learning exercises that the teacher uses in conducting her recitations, and also an analysis of the questions which do not form the basis for learning activity of the pupil.
 - b. Securing a measure of the teacher's ability to control the attention of the class.
 - c. An analysis of the activities in which the pupils engage in response to the teacher's directions.
 - d. An analysis of the teacher's immediate objectives.
 - e. An analysis of the results of a standardized test.
2. Hold a conference with the teacher in order to make suggestions for the improvement of teaching when the data secured as indicated in (1) reveals ineffective teaching.
3. To secure data after the conference with the teacher, in order to determine whether improvement has occurred.
4. To continue this cycle of "securing information about teaching, conference, securing information on which to base conclusions relative to improvements," energetically and sympathetically until both teachers and supervisor have objective evidence that improvement in teaching has resulted.

Findings and Conclusions. Supporting data are given to indicate that the following improvements were made in teaching:

- a. Thirty-two and seven tenths per cent of the pupils were not called on during recitations secured in the fall, whereas one per cent were not called on during the recitations secured in the spring.
- b. In the fall 8.2 per cent of the pupils were called on three times during the recitations, whereas only 4.8 per cent were asked three questions in the spring. These data are evidence that the teacher is making a better distribution among members of the class.
- c. In the fall 13.9 per cent of the pupils were called on who could not make any response, whereas in the spring there were only 9.6.

- d. There were 52.4 per cent of good responses in the fall, whereas there were 65.5 per cent in the spring.
- e. In the fall, 10 per cent of the pupils made poor responses but in the spring there were only 5 per cent.
- f. In the fall, only 10.2 per cent of the pupils asked questions during the recitations, whereas in the spring there were 22.2 per cent. This tends to show more interest among the pupils.
- g. One hundred per cent of the pupils were taking part in the recitation in the spring, whereas only 86.4 were taking part in the fall.
- h. In the spring there was an average of 30.1 minutes per teacher given to directed study, whereas in the fall there was only 13.5 minutes.
- i. In the fall there were only two teachers providing for a summary of the lesson, whereas in the spring there were nine.

That the following improvements were made after supervision is noticeable from supporting data:

- 1. More basal learning exercises and fewer test questions
- 2. More time given to directed study
- 3. Learning exercises better distributed
- 4. More recognition of individual differences
- 5. Better balance between home and school work
- 6. Teachers differentiate between the doing of the exercises and the outcomes
- 7. Activities of the pupils are better distributed
- 8. Better group control.
- 9. Definite immediate objectives formulated in terms of abilities to be engendered
- 10. Considerable improvement in achievement shown by standardized tests
- 11. More good responses
- 12. More pupils asking questions
- 13. Summaries of the lessons were provided for
- 14. Teachers gave help to more pupils

15. Fewer unclassified exercises
16. More pupils volunteering relevant responses.

22. Gunnoe, Otway Marshall. *Check List for Comparing Theory and Practice in High School Teaching*. June, 1930. Pp. 96.

The Problem. "To construct some means of measuring the extent to which theory and principles of teaching in the high school, as evidenced by texts on methods, are carried on in practice."

Limitations of the Study. Ten textbooks on methods of teaching in high school were analyzed and the outstanding principles found in them were taken as the basis of theory.

Sources of Data. Literature dealing with evaluation of teaching and rating scales, and ten textbooks on methods of teaching in the high school.

Techniques Used in this Study. A review was made of the literature on teacher rating to find the various schemes in use. About eighty principles which represent the analysis of the ten textbooks on theory and methods of teaching were used as a basis for making a shorter check list of 67 items to be used in the classroom. This check list is constructed on a plan somewhat similar to the true and false examination.

Twelve pairs of observations were recorded to verify the use of the check list. Tables III and IV give the results of these observations made by three different observers. Observer "A" was compared with observer "B", also with "C" and "B" with "C".

Findings and Conclusions. The following merits are claimed for the check list:

1. The check list is based upon a definite set of principles, and is definite in its form.
2. The mechanics of scoring are very simple so that the attention is free for observing the class.
3. The form of the check list is concise enough to have most that is involved in the ordinary class. It is placed easily

on two sheets, yet is comprehensive enough to include all the items suggested for the ordinary classroom recitation.

4. The check list represents the principles that have been gleaned from ten textbooks, therefore it covers rather broad view of what is important in teaching.

5. The results given in Tables III and IV indicate a fair reliability measure of its use. The average results from a combination of the two tables are as follows:

Exact agreement on	- -	68%
Slight variation on	- -	19%
Great variation on	- - -	8%
Greatest variation on	- -	3%

Recommendations. The supervisor needs an evaluating scheme that will be diagnostic in effect and reliable in results.

23. Henry, Beryl. *Evaluating Teaching by Means of Pupil Activity Chart*. June, 1929. Pp. 120.

Problem. The problem of this thesis is to devise (1) a scheme for evaluating teaching upon objective evidence, that of pupil activity, and (2) to use in a normal teaching situation the plan devised in order to estimate its practicability.

Limitations of the Study:

1. The study was confined to one school and to one department in that school.
2. Evaluation of responses made by pupils was a subjective matter.
3. Work was not a part of the regular program, therefore the teachers voluntarily practiced the suggestions made to them.

Source of Data. Various books, studies and articles dealing with the rating of teachers and the present trend of evaluation of teaching were reviewed. A pupil activity chart was constructed which checked the essential pupil activities during a recitation period. The experiment was carried out by using a typical high school, (Central High School, Davidson County, Tennessee) employing thirty-five teachers and enrolling nine hundred pupils, as a laboratory for testing the efficiency of the chart.

Technique Used in the Study. The method of the study was largely analytical and historical. The teachers were told that the plan was an attempt to measure the results of teaching through pupil response. The objectives were placed before them and therefore the teachers became a part of the plan. Two lessons were observed, one before and one after the plan was put into effect. Sixteen lessons were recorded in each class and the results of each class were tabulated and compared. The entire experiment extended over a period of four and one-half months.

Findings and Conclusions. The author concludes her thesis with a summary enumerating the outstanding features concerning her investigation. The most important are:

After Supervision.

1. The number of test questions were reduced 34.4 per cent.
2. The number of learning exercises were increased 21.3 per cent.
3. Teachers endeavored to maintain a higher level of learning which in turn brought about a better quality of response from pupils.
4. Distribution of work was more even.
5. An increase in the number of voluntary responses.
6. An increase in the number of questions asked by pupils.
7. An increase in interest and attention.
8. A decrease in the discipline problem.
9. The chart may serve as a self-improvement scheme for both the teacher and the supervisor.
10. The chart affords a means of getting data on:
 - a. Group control, which eliminates waste.
 - b. Operative control, which establishes in a more efficient manner a learning situation for the mastery of units by the pupil.
 - c. Recognition of individual differences in formulating questions or exercises for pupils.

24. Smith, William Jefferson. *Evaluating of Teaching by Analysis of Learning Exercises*. June, 1929. Pp. 153.

Problem. The purpose of this study is to present a supervisory scheme in which teaching is evaluated on the basis of the relationship between learning exercises (requests direct and indirect that the teacher makes of the student), learning activity (the response that the students make in response to the teacher's requests), and the teacher's immediate objective (the abilities which the teacher attempts to engender in the pupils).

Limitations of the Study. The data, no doubt, would have been more reliable if the study had been more comprehensive in scope. Only one school, ten teachers, and two departments were used in this report. Better results might have been secured had the supervisory program been carried out by an official supervisor. The entire scheme was a volunteer project. Teachers were not required to follow the writer's supervisory program. The subjective element will of necessity enter into a subject of this kind. This limitation is especially applicable in applying the general criteria for judging the learning exercises.

Source of Data. This study was carried out in Central High School, Davidson County, Tennessee, during the school year 1928-1929. Observations were begun in the early fall and concluded about the middle of April. At the beginning two of the observations were made with each teacher at the same period on consecutive days and at such time that the teacher did not know the observer was coming. The observer used blanks on which were recorded (1) the assignment of the previous day; (2) the learning exercises of the recitation; (3) the learning exercises of the advanced assignment, and (4) the time devoted to each phase of the lesson. A total of sixty observations were made during the year.

Technique Used in the Study. Part I contains a summary of the efforts to evaluate teaching as reported in current educational literature. Part II gives a basis for the point of view for developing the criteria by which teaching is evaluated in this study and shows how these criteria were applied in a real situation.

The learning exercises of five lessons in history and five lessons in mathematics taken before supervision are analyzed by the established criteria. A program of supervision was attempted in an effort to meet the needs of the teachers as revealed by the lesson analysis. After this program of supervision was carried on for four months, the learning exercises of five lessons in history and five lessons in mathematics from the same teachers were taken and analyzed by the established criteria. The results of the analysis before and after supervision were summarized and compared.

Findings and Conclusions. The data showed that after supervision teachers used more thought questions and less devices. In the stimulation and direction of students in learning activities more recognition was given to individual differences, to the proper distribution between home and school work, to the satisfactory conditions of learning, and to the devising of learning exercises so that they were a real challenge to the students. Improvement was also shown by a more appropriate balance between the several types of instructional activities.

A summary of the improvements made after supervision as is evidenced from the data shown in this study include:

1. More thought questions and fewer test questions.
2. Better distribution of time.
3. Learning exercises better distributed.
4. More recognition of individual differences.
5. Better balance between home and school work.
6. Learning exercises more of a challenge to students.
7. Conditions of learning more satisfactory.
8. Teacher differentiated between the doing of learning exercises and the outcomes.
9. Activities of the students better balanced.
10. Special efforts made to teach ideals, interests, attitudes, and the like.

26. Dunn, Clarence Edwin. *Teacher-Load in Junior High School in Fort Worth, Texas.* August, 1932. Pp. 54.

Problem. The problem of this study is to determine the teachers' load in the junior high schools of Fort Worth, Texas.

The problem divides itself into two factors: first, the teaching load which involves all those details pertaining to classroom instruction, and second, the teacher-load which is equal to the teaching load plus all the activities of a community nature which are not directly connected with classroom instruction.

Limitations of the Study. No attempt was made in this study to suggest corrections which might be made in the teaching load of the junior high school teachers. It is merely a compilation of the hours spent in the various forms of teacher activity, and the amount of training and experience of the teachers.

No attempt was made to test the validity of the information supplied by the teachers.

Sources of Data. A survey of other studies in this field was made in order to determine the factors which are to be considered in a study of teaching load. The data for this study were secured by means of a questionnaire sent to all the junior high school teachers of Fort Worth during the fall of 1930.

Technique Used in the Study. A survey of the literature pertaining to teacher load in order to determine the factors involved in the problem was first made. Then a questionnaire was compiled designed to facilitate the collecting of data pertaining to the various phases of teaching-load and teacher-load. After the collection of the material, tabulations were made to secure the findings which were revealed by the questionnaire.

Findings and Conclusions. The findings and conclusions of this study are as follows:

A. Teaching-load or those activities which are directly connected with classroom instruction:

- (1) The data show that the average number of classes taught per week by each teacher in the junior high school was 26.2 and that the average number of pupils per class was 28.8.
- (2) Twenty-three teachers out of a total number of 91 teach neither their major or minor subject; 67.7 per cent of all teachers as shown in this report are teaching in their major or minor fields of preparation.
- (3) The average number of pupil-hours that a teacher spends in school work per week in the junior high

schools of Fort Worth, Texas, was found to be 725 pupil-hours per week.

(4) The average number of hours spent by each teacher per week in all departments for activities directly connected with classroom instruction outside of instruction periods was as follows:

- (a) Construction, scoring and grading tests, 3.9 hours
- (b) Examining note books, reports and themes, 3.1 hours
- (c) Making out reports, 1.5 hours
- (d) Preparation for teaching classes, 4.2 hours.

B. The average number of hours spent by each teacher in the activities which are not directly connected with classroom activities by departments:

English department	- - -	11.9 hours per week
Language department	- - -	10.2 hours per week
Social Science department	- -	9.4 hours per week
Mathematics department	- -	8.8 hours per week
Science department	- - -	5.3 hours per week
Fine Arts department	- - -	9.1 hours per week
Practical Arts department	-	6.6 hours per week
Health department	- - -	22.3 hours per week

C. The teacher-load or the number of hours spent per week by teachers in class duties and in out-of-class duties by departments:

English department	- - -	43.0 hours
Language department	- - -	42.2 hours
Social Science department	- -	36.4 hours
Mathematics department	- -	42.4 hours
Science department	- - -	38.4 hours
Fine arts department	- - -	47.4 hours
Practical arts department	- -	49.4 hours
Health department	- - -	49.4 hours

No recommendations of any form regarding the teacher-load in junior high school of Fort Worth, Texas, are made in this study.

27. Rogers, Gladys. *Teacher Load in the Junior High Schools of Detroit, Michigan.* August, 1932. Pp. 83.

Problem. To determine the relative amount of time spent by the teachers of the Detroit junior high schools in teaching, preparing for classroom teaching, examining notebooks and reports, making out and grading tests, making out reports, taking care of routine school duties, attending school meetings, holding special conferences, working for professional growth and advancement, doing research work, taking care of disciplinary duties, and sponsoring extra-curricular activities.

Limitations of the Study. The study is confined to the 1061 junior high school teachers of Detroit, Michigan. The junior high schools of Detroit contain the seventh, eighth and ninth grades. Junior high school buildings are constructed on a policy of housing 1200 or more pupils in each building and 72 per cent of all junior high school pupils are so housed. No attempt is made to set a standard teaching load. The study is conducted from the teachers' viewpoint and with a view to establishing the question as to whether the avowed purposes of the junior high school can be realized if the teaching load is so large that it prevents teachers from giving adequate attention to those purposes for which the junior high school is maintained. No attempt is made to weigh teaching load in different subject fields. The questionnaire method of gathering data was used in the study. The subjectivity of the data on some items necessitates formulating conclusions on the basis of consensus of opinions.

Sources of Data. The data in the study were obtained directly from the teachers and administrators by means of a questionnaire. All of the 1061 junior high school teachers of Detroit filled out a questionnaire. The questionnaire was largely impersonal in its administration.

Technique Used in the Study. The data collected are arranged in a series of twenty-two tables in which totals and averages for the various items studied in the group of 1061 teachers employed in the twenty junior high schools of Detroit are given. A table is included for each main topic of the questionnaire.

Findings and Conclusions. Sixty-eight per cent of all teachers are college graduates and 20.1 per cent had the Master's degree. The Language department ranks highest in Master's degree and the Social Studies department ranks highest for the Bachelor's degree. The Commercial department ranked lowest. Only twenty-five teachers have less than three years of teaching experience. No new teachers had been employed in the system for two years prior to the study, which indicates a low turnover in teachers. Thirty-nine per cent of the junior high school teachers come up from the elementary schools. A two-year probationary period is required before teachers may enter the tenure program. Only 11.5 per cent of the teachers are not teaching in either their major or minor fields of training, with the Mathematics department being the worst offender. Socialized recitation is the most frequent method used with individual instruction ranking second. Pupils are grouped homogeneously on the basis of I. Q., C. A. and achievement performance in elementary schools. Differentiation begins with the eighth grade among the Language Curriculum, Commercial Curriculum, or Practical Arts Curriculum.

Language teachers spent the least number of hours per week in activities connected with classroom teaching—5.9 hours; while teachers of Health subjects spent the most—11.1 hours.

The teachers spend about 3.8 hours per week in daily preparation for classes. The median pupil clock-hours per teacher is 780. Each teacher has five classes per day. The range of class size is 10-49 with a median of 39.3. The pupil-teacher ratio is 31.2. The time spent each week in teaching and all activities pertaining to the work of a teacher ranged from 38.8 hours for teachers of the Social Studies to 46.7 hours for teachers in the Health department. The teaching load in junior high schools is heavier than that of the senior high school teachers.

Teaching load as referred to in this study consists of all time spent in all activities connected with the school. There were 142 different extra-instructional activities engaged in by teachers.

The writer of the thesis concludes that teacher load as estimated in this study does not appear to defeat any of the purposes of the junior high school.

28. West, Joseph Henry. *The Junior High School in the Southern Association*. August, 1930. Pp. 164.

The Problem. This study was undertaken for the purpose of determining to what extent provision is made for individual differences by the junior high schools of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States.

Limitations. Those limitations applying to all studies involving the use of questionnaires for the collection of major data apply to this study.

Sources of Data. Questionnaires were sent to eighty-five of the larger high schools listed in the 1929 yearbook of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States and satisfactory data were obtained from sixty-five of them. One or more schools in each state in the Association territory returned the questionnaires satisfactorily filled out.

In addition to these data the study included a brief review of the literature of the field and a detailed study of seven published studies and one unpublished Master's Thesis dealing with the same problem.

Technique Used in the Study. The writer made abstracts of the seven treatments of the problem which he studied in detail and included them in the body of his thesis.

Data supplied by the questionnaires were tabulated under appropriate headings and studied.

Findings and Conclusions:

A. As regards organization:

1. 65 per cent of the schools studied were organized into grades 7, 8, and 9.
2. 22 per cent of the schools studied were organized into grades 6, 7, and 8.
3. 17 per cent of the schools studied were organized into grades 7 and 8.
4. The enrollments of all of the sixty-five schools, ranging from 112 to 1794, are large enough for the employment of junior high school principals.

B. As regards staff:

1. The schools were provided with the following staff members: principal; physical director; home-room teacher; athletic coach.
2. The percentage of men and women teachers is 18 and 82, respectively.

C. As regards provisions for physical needs of individual pupils:

1. Average of 5.1 acres of play space which is only fifty per cent of the required amount. Fifty per cent of the schools have gymnasiums.
2. The tendency is toward intra-mural and inter-school games and away from formal calisthenics.
3. Fifty-six schools report practice of intra-mural games and fifty schools foster inter-school games.
4. Over 80 per cent of the schools require one or more physical examinations a year.
5. Fifty-eight schools require enrollment in physical exercises and the median length of the physical-exercise period is 50 minutes.
6. Forty-eight schools require enrollment in health-study classes.
7. No special provision is made for physically handicapped children.

D. As regards provisions for mental needs of individual pupils:

1. Seventy-five per cent of the schools are housed in separate buildings. Sixty schools have library space and fifty-four auditorium with stages; all have floor space for domestic science, but laboratories for sciences are notably lacking; sufficient floor space is provided for music and art; in general no provision is made for commercial work and seventy-eight per cent of the schools require the pupils to purchase their textbooks.
2. The median number of recitations per day is six, the median length of recitation period is 50 minutes, and median length of school day 360 minutes.

3. Forty-eight schools provided for supervised study during the recitation period.
4. Departmental instruction is found in all the schools; ability grouping in 80 per cent; various methods of instruction were found in all the schools.
5. Little attention is given to the super-normal and the sub-normal child in these schools.
6. The data obtained did not permit satisfactory analysis of programs of study, but it is noted that electives are found mostly in the ninth grade; less than 5 per cent of the schools are offering a sufficient number of exploratory courses; forty-one schools permit shifting from one course to another as pupils' needs demand.
7. Only 65 per cent of the schools make any pretense of educational guidance; the occupational course in most cases constitutes vocational guidance.
8. Promotion by subject, mostly semi-annually, is practiced in the majority of schools; thirty-two schools permit conditional promotion.
9. Thirty per cent of the schools give credit toward graduation for out of school work.
10. Less than half of the schools studied require formal graduation.

E. Provision for social needs of individual pupils:

1. Student participation is found in forty-four schools; in fifty-three schools a pupil may engage in five or more student-body activities; club membership is, as a rule, voluntary; sixty-four schools provide home rooms, but in only thirty are they reported as self-governing units; assemblies are held on an average of 1.6 times a week and are recognized as pupil affairs in 86 per cent of the schools; a negligible number of schools are assuming the responsibility of providing wholesome entertainment for all pupils; while awards are provided by most schools for extra-curricular work, they are not counted toward graduation; all schools are negligent in the matter of social-background records.

F. As regards the provisions for the moral needs of individual pupils:

1. Little effort is noted on the part of most schools for teaching of moral guidance by the direct or individual-instruction method; less than 30 per cent of the schools evaluate character traits to the extent of keeping a record card for each individual; the attention given to religious instruction is of no significance.
29. Wilson, William E. *Probable Factors Affecting Eliminations in Tennessee High Schools*. August, 1926. Pp. 65.

Problem. This study was made for the purpose of making a comparison of the pupils who are eliminated from the high schools of Tennessee with the pupils who are not eliminated. The comparison is based upon: (1) the age of the pupils at the time of entrance into the ninth grade; (2) the distance of the homes from the schools attended; (3) parental occupation, and (4) the failures made in the school subjects.

Limitations of the Study. The study covered the factors mentioned above as more or less unrelated to each other and did not indicate to what extent more than one of them were operative for the same pupil. A further limitation is noted in that the writer did not show that the factors studied were causes and not merely characteristics of eliminated and non-eliminated pupils.

Sources of Data. The data were derived from a study of the records of 2,018 pupils from sixty-five high schools in Tennessee over a period of four years. These records included the pupils' ages, parental occupations, distances of home from schools. These items were secured at the time the pupils entered the ninth grade in 1922. In addition, a record of their failures and eliminations was secured for each of the four years which the study covered.

Technique Used in the Study. A questionnaire, accompanied by an explanatory letter, was sent to the principal or superintendent of each school asking for the necessary information. As the information was received the names of the pupils were classified into the eliminated and non-eliminated group and they were further classified according to the four factors studied. Conclusions were then drawn upon the basis of the tabulated data.

Findings and Conclusions. It was learned that approximately one-half of the eliminations occur before the second year of high school is reached. In going from the group of pupils who were found in the schools at eleven years of age to the group nineteen years old, it was found that "there is a steady increase of elimination, approximately 10 per cent for each succeeding year of age." The age of the pupil on entering the school was found to be an important factor in elimination for the probability of an under-age pupil remaining for the full four years of high school was nine times that of the over-age pupil. The median age of all pupils entering high school was found to be 15.44 years and the median age of the eliminated group was 16.2 years as compared with 15.08 years for the non-eliminated group.

Of the pupils studied 32.06 per cent lived at a distance of one mile or less from the schools attended, 59.99 per cent lived at a distance of three miles or less, 19.37 per cent lived over five miles away, and 6.86 per cent lived more than ten miles from the school attended. There was little difference in the percentage of eliminations between groups of pupils living one mile, two miles, three miles, and four miles from school; but on the whole the comparatively small group living from five to twenty miles from school tended to be eliminated at a slower rate than pupils whose homes were one to four miles away. The median distance of homes of non-eliminated pupils from school was 1.7 miles while for the eliminated group it was 2.1; the first and third quartiles were .65 and .89 miles, and 4.25 miles and 4.44 miles, respectively; therefore the conclusion is that, taking the group as a whole, the eliminated pupils live farther from the school than the non-eliminated group.

Public education in Tennessee was found to be selective in principle and application when it was noted that the smallest percentage of elimination (27) was for children whose fathers' occupations were in the non-labor group, and the largest percentage (39) was for children whose fathers were engaged in agriculture. The common labor group showed 31 per cent elimination and the skilled labor group 35 per cent.

Failure to pass work was also found to be a factor in pupil elimination because eliminated pupils made three times as many failures per pupil as non-eliminated pupils. It was noted

that the number of failures decreased annually for the same group of pupils from the freshman year to the senior year.

Recommendations. The writer recommends:

1. That immediate steps be taken to prevent over-ageness in the elementary grades in order that fewer over-age pupils will enter high school.
2. That the high school curricula be reorganized so as to meet more adequately the needs of the pupils from agricultural homes.
3. That since algebra accounted for such a large percentage (32.23) of the failures it be made to articulate more closely with seventh and eighth grade mathematics.

30. Tolman, Wolfred Ruben. *The Development of Secondary-Schools by the Seventh Day Adventists of North America.* June, 1929. Pp. 73.

Problem. To trace the development of the educational work of the Seventh Day Adventists of North America, with particular emphasis on the development of the secondary schools.

Limitations of the Study. The first limitation noted is the fact that literature bearing upon the field is scarce and difficult to obtain.

A second limitation is stated by the writer as follows: "It is also a difficult problem for one who has had an active part in the cause, who believes in it and in the doctrines of the church for which it stands, to give an account of what has been accomplished without putting it in at least as favorable form as possible. . . ."

Sources of Data. The source of the material for this study was principally the publications and reports of the church, but these were supplemented by the encyclopedias, census reports and any other sources from which material could be gleaned.

Technique Used in the Study. The historical research method was employed in the preparation of this thesis.

Findings and Conclusions. The writer first gave a brief historical sketch of the Seventh Day Adventist denomination

as a background to the school work of this church. It was not until 1845 that this church was organized, but the denomination has grown steadily and at the present time its membership is estimated to be approximately 300,000 in the United States. It maintains missions in foreign lands, has developed hospitals in many portions of the country, owns some forty publishing houses which issue and circulate over two million dollars' worth of denominational literature annually, and has a well developed system of schools and colleges.

The impetus for the establishment of separate schools by the denomination arose from the fact that the children of Adventists were taunted and even persecuted by other children in the public schools. There was also a disagreement as to the purposes of education; the public schools sought to train children for the problems of the world, whereas the Adventists wished their children educated "in accordance with spiritual principles to fit them for heaven rather than the world." In 1860 the first Adventist school was opened in Battle Creek, Michigan. Later a Professor G. H. Bell conducted an elementary school for Adventist children in the same city. In 1872, Professor Bell opened a school for the preparation of denominational workers which institution later became known as Battle Creek College, and was a potent factor in the development of the denomination.

In 1883 two new schools were opened by the church, one in California, and one in South Lancaster, Massachusetts. The statement of the aim of education sought by one of these schools is as follows: "True education builds up and strengthens a symmetry of character that, by and by, in after life, will show itself in some grand, good and noble work for the world. The school at South Lancaster seeks to attain this ideal." The school at South Lancaster, Massachusetts, was the first secondary school of the denomination, the second was opened at Mount Vernon, Ohio, in 1893.

In discussing the purpose of the Adventist schools the writer says: "These schools were organized to bring Adventist young people a reformed educational training. This training was to fit them to act worthily their part in this world, and help them be ready for the next world."

It was about the year 1895 that the movement was set on foot for the wide-spread establishment of schools by the de-

nomination. They sought to staff these schools as far as possible with Adventist teachers employed in the public schools who possessed a missionary spirit and were willing to devote their lives to the work at a much less salary than they formerly received. The denomination maintains normal departments in many of its training schools.

The principles of education as conceived by the Adventists are stated as follows:

"The Bible is faithfully taught in all years of school life. 1. More than that the teaching in all of the classrooms must be in harmony with the fundamental principles taught in the Bible, which is accepted by Seventh-day Adventists as the source of spiritual truth. 2. Those studies are emphasized which contribute most directly to the spiritual objectives which led to the founding of their religious schools. 3. Manual labor is honored as having a definite place in an all-round preparation for life. 4. The cultivation of correct physical habits is emphasized."

At a convention held in 1906, plans were adopted to organize educational work extending from the first grade through four years of college. It was planned that the work in the grammar grades and the preparatory or academic, courses should be made to correspond in a general way with the work given in the same years of the public school.

One of the features of the denominational schools of secondary and of college grade is the provision that is made for worthy and industrious students to support themselves while they are attending the institutions.

In 1915 a convention was held at which definite standards of education were adopted. These increased the efficiency of the schools and colleges by bringing about a oneness of aim and methods. At this convention it was recommended that the year be 36 weeks, divided into semesters with six-week report periods, and that work be reckoned on a unit basis.

In general the curriculum of the Adventist schools is similar to that of the public schools with the exception of the requirement of one unit of religious or denominational study each year.

In discussing the present status of Seventh-day Adventist schools in North America, the writer lists sixty-two colleges

and secondary schools, giving for each the date of organization, acres of land, student capacity, grades taught and whether equipped for manual training. In the closing chapter he summarizes the progress of the denominational plans as an indication of the plans for the future.

31. Warwick, James Gordon. *A History of the Rise and Fall of the Academies in Mississippi*. August, 1927. Pp. 114.

Problem. The writer had three motives in making this study of the rise and fall of the academies in Mississippi. They were: (1) to learn why the academies were established in Mississippi and to know about the nature of their organization, administration and distribution; (2) to discover some of the causes which led to the extinction of many of the academies; (3) to find out the conditions of the existing academies in respect to their classification by the State Department of Education, their means of support and their curricula as compared with the State Suggested Course of Study found in Bulletin No. 29, 1924.

Limitations of the Study. This study is confined to the study of the privately owned and operated academies which flourished in such great numbers in each of the Southern states prior to the establishment of an adequate system of public secondary education. Since many of these academies are not only extinct, but have also been forgotten it was difficult to secure adequate information concerning them. A further limitation is noted in the fact that the scope of this work does not admit of a full treatment of the many questions and conditions brought forth by the study of the rise and fall of these institutions.

Sources of Data. The data found in the study were derived from a variety of sources among which were: Mississippi newspapers dated from 1802 to 1905; Mississippi histories and historical publications; Legislative acts, and codes and digests of the state laws; state public school reports and bulletins; catalogs of the institutions; and, questionnaires.

Technique Used in the Study. In studying the data found it was observed that five questions presented themselves, and each was made the title of a chapter. These questions are: (1)

Why were the academies established in Mississippi? (2) How were the academies financed? (3) What was the nature of the organization and administration of the academies and how were they distributed? (4) Why did the academies cease to exist? (5) What is the status of the existing academies in respect to their classification by the State Department of Education, their means of support, and their curricula as compared with the State Suggested Course of Study as found in Bulletin No. 29, 1924?

Findings and Conclusions:

Chapter I.

This chapter sought to answer the question, Why were the academies established in Mississippi? The writer studied the stated reasons for establishing and maintaining these academies and found a variety of reasons ranging all the way from the general purpose of preparation for life to the more specific purpose of teaching the "Catholic children of Vicksburg and care for the poor girls especially". Perhaps the outstanding reason for the establishment of these academies was to provide a superior type of education for the boys and girls of Mississippi nearer at home and thus avoid the necessity of sending them to the older academies in other states. Among the other reasons enumerated by the writer in his summary of this chapter are found: dissemination of knowledge and inculcation of moral culture; education of the masses; "promoting the cause of letters with the true interests and dignity of the state"; preparation for entrance into higher institutions; spiritual culture; to escape the "lock-step" of the public school and military training.

Chapter II.

This chapter is devoted to answering the question, "How were the academies financed"? It is disclosed that the Ordinance of 1787 had its effect upon the establishment of the academy system in Mississippi for on December 23, 1799 a memorial was presented to Congress by the people of Natchez praying for legislative aid in the establishment of schools. This was the first movement for public education in Mississippi and the beginning of the academy system. The writer found among the sources of support for the academies, land grants by the National Government; loans and donations by the State

Government; public contributions; individual subscriptions and donations; proceeds from lotteries; loans by banks; tuition; manual labor products; proceeds from the sale of school lots; sixteenth section revenues; taxes; tax exemption for schools; forfeitures and escheats; licenses of billiard tables; licenses for retailing wines or spirituous liquors; church offerings, subscriptions and donations; and donations and subscriptions from Odd Fellows, Masons, and other fraternal organizations.

Chapter III.

The answers to two questions are found in this chapter; first dealing with the distribution of the academies and the other with their organization and administration. One of the outstanding features of this section of the study is a list of the two hundred sixty academies known to have been chartered in Mississippi. The name, classification, location and date of organization of each is given. First in the list is Ker Female School, of Natchez, chartered in 1801 and the last is the Mississippi College Academy, at Clinton, which was chartered in 1913. Of these academies thirty-four were for males, seventy-five were for females, one hundred were for both male and female, and fifty could not be classified for lack of information. Two hundred sixty were established by individual enterprise, thirty-five by churches and church organizations and three by the Masons.

Two hundred twenty-three of the academies were administered by self-perpetuating boards of trustees, for one of them the state legislature acted in the capacity of trustees, one was unclassified and the others were governed by the church or fraternal bodies sponsoring them.

A principal, or superintendent, and the assistants, elected by the governing body were engaged to conduct the institution and to teach the various courses of study. These courses were usually organized by the principal and adopted by the governing body.

The curricula for the institutions ranged from the simple elementary course to such advanced courses as we find today in the standard classical colleges. The main courses found in the various colleges were as follows: 1. Primary, 2. Grammar, 3. Latin-Scientific, 4. Classical, 5. English, 6. Commercial, 7. Military tactics, 8. Music, 9. Modern-Foreign Languages, 10. Dancing, 11. Moral Philosophy and the Bible, 12. Domestic

and Culinary Arts, 13. Principles of Liberty, Free Government, 14. Common Studies, and 15. Ornamental Arts.

Chapter IV.

The question, Why did the academies cease to exist, is treated in this chapter. In the school year of 1925-1926 there were fourteen academies on the list of state accredited institutions. With the exception of a small number of non-accredited institutions which were not listed, they represent the total number of the two hundred sixty academies surviving the ravages of time. Among the chief causes of the decline of the academies in Mississippi were: an inadequate and weak system of financing; the ravages and after effects of the Civil War; and, the establishment of an adequate and widespread system of public secondary schools. Other causes mentioned by the writer were: shifting of the centers of population necessitating the removal or abandonment of established institutions; yellow fever epidemics; absorption by institutions of higher learning; too much competition; destruction by fire; consolidation of two schools; indifference of trustee boards; and sectarian controversy.

Chapter V.

In this chapter the writer examined the present status of the academies in Mississippi. He found that fourteen were accredited by the State Department of Education in 1925-1926, and implies that some additional non-accredited academies were operating but gave no information about them. These schools derive their support from a variety of sources among which are listed offerings, subscriptions, tuition, profits on board, donations and endowment. Nine different courses of study are offered: college preparatory, vocational, teachers, classical, scientific, English, general, the State course, and the State course with the addition of music and military science.

Chapter VI.

This closing chapter of the thesis is devoted to a summary of the findings and conclusions. Some of the points of interest, not previously given in this review, follow:

Publicity, accomplished through the press and catalogs issued by the institutions, was an outstanding feature of these institutions.

In comparing the curricula of the accredited academies with the State Course of Study, it was found that no academy

offered more than twenty-five courses, whereas the State course offered fifty-six. The State course specified fewer required courses and permitted a greater range of electives than did the curricula of the academies.

A supplementary table, given in the concluding chapter, showed that in sixty-five of the Mississippi counties from one to nineteen academies were established, and in seventeen counties no academies were ever established.

32. Hounchell, Saul. *The High School Pupils of a Kentucky Mountain County*. August, 1929. Pp. 157.

Problem. This thesis attempts to discover some aspects of (1) the social and economic status, (2) the intellectual and educational status, and (3) the life interests of the high school pupils of a Kentucky mountain county.

Limitations of the Study. It is questionable if the achievement and intelligence tests used were adequate tests of the pupils studied because the background of these pupils was so different from that of the children for which they were designed.

Sources of Data. The data were derived from questionnaires filled out by each pupil, the results obtained from the Illinois Examination II, and the two question blanks used by Terman in his study of gifted children, these blanks having been filled in by the children studied. In addition to these sources the writer, who has spent the greater part of his life in the region, relied to a certain extent upon his personal observations of the factors studied.

Technique Used in the Study. A questionnaire was filled out by each pupil. This contained questions designed to get at the socio-economic status and other questions concerning the family of the pupil and certain of his interests and plans.

The Illinois Examination II was administered. This examination consists of tests of intelligence, reading and arithmetic.

Two question blanks used by Terman in his studies of gifted children were filled by each pupil. These blanks dealt with activity interests and school-subject interests.

These data were presented and, where possible, comparisons were drawn from different situations.

Findings and Conclusions. The foreword opens with a quotation from John C. Campbell who, in speaking of the ignorance of the country at large, concerning the mountain section of Kentucky and adjoining states, says that it is "a land about which, perhaps, more things are known that are not true than of any other part of our country." The writer then quotes at length from a recent article appearing in *Collier's* and reprinted in *The Literary Digest* and he makes the statement that the mountain dialect portrayed was but the most flagrant garbling, and the characters depicted, if found at all, were only the rarest freaks. Furthermore the "statistics" given were the grossest inaccuracies because the writer of the magazine article attributed a population of 4,000,000 to the Cumberland mountain areas when the census of 1920 gave it as 1,226,137. Out of this population there were, according to the article quoted 2,000,000 children of school age, while the same census shows 345,110. The article said that illiteracy still exceeded 90 per cent in the mountains of Kentucky, Virginia, West Virginia, Tennessee, and North Carolina, but the census of 1920 showed that the county which the article purported to describe showed 18.6 per cent illiteracy and the average illiteracy in Kentucky's mountain counties in 1920 was 11.8.

The body of the thesis is devoted to a general description of the pupils and their families; the socio-economic status of the Clay County, Kentucky, pupils, their intellectual and educational status, and some of their life interests.

A summary of the principal findings are given by the writer as follows:

"The county has six high schools, with enrollments ranging from 16 to 149 and totaling 338. Four are public schools; two supported by general contributions from outside the mountains. One of these latter has been in existence thirty years; the others were all established from five to nine years ago. The schools are well distributed over the county, the entire population of which is rural. Lacking means of transportation, the student bodies are for the most part local.

"Of the pupils, 49 out of every 50 were born in the mountains. Practically all the fathers and mothers of the pupils

were born in the mountains, 9 out of 10 in Clay and adjoining counties. Of these 9, 8 have never lived elsewhere; the other one has tried residence for a year or more outside the mountains and has returned to his native home.

"The average number of children in the families of the pupils is 7.38; the most frequent number is 9. The most frequent position of birth is first; the median is third. These families have emphasized high school and college education for the other children. No difference is found in the emphasis placed upon education for boys and for girls.

"Most of the pupils are from homes where the socio-economic status is low or medium low. Still, these homes are believed to be well above the average for the county. More than 60 per cent of the fathers are farmers. Most of the others have occupations of equal or higher classification. The parents have had little schooling. The homes have few luxuries or conveniences.

"Measured by instruments probably ill suited to them, these pupils show an intelligence mostly average and below. Educational tests lead to the surprising conclusion that on the basis of ability their school achievement has been close up to the average for city children.

"There are no marked evidences of unusual interests among these pupils along lines of general activities and the school subjects. On the whole their life interests are probably less well developed and their plans for the future less definitely considered than is true of high school pupils in general.

"The curricula of the schools are purely college preparatory, and the practical subjects are very little studied. Nearly all the pupils who have plans for the future expect to go to college.

"In the light of the opinions of certain students of mountain problems, the high schools of this county do not seem to be contributing materially to the solution of these problems."

33. North, Elizabeth. *Occupation of Graduates of High Schools in Three Kentucky Counties*. June, 1932. Pp. 57.

Problem. The problem undertaken in this study is to determine what occupation the graduates of the rural high

schools are following in order that the information thus gained may serve as a basis for fitting curricula to the needs of high school pupils of the future.

Limitations of the Study. Only high school graduates of the fifteen high schools in Fayette, Henry, and Shelby counties, Kentucky, for the years of 1920, 1921, 1922, 1923, and 1924 were studied.

Sources of Data. In addition to a review of the literature pertinent to this study the writer derived his data from tracing the occupations of the graduates of the high schools in these three counties for the five years enumerated. Information concerning the graduates was secured from the school officials of the three counties, the school records, the parents of the graduates, people of the community, and, finally, from the graduates themselves.

Technique Used in the Study. Information concerning the graduates was collected by means of personal interviews, study of school records, and questionnaires. The data were classified and treated so as to show which graduates went to college, and which went to work; the types of colleges attended and the extent of college training received; present occupations; training for present occupations; vocational subjects offered in the high school, and the influence of the high school curriculum on the choice of vocations.

Findings and Conclusions. Fayette, Henry, and Shelby counties are located in the north central section of Kentucky, in the Bluegrass Region, which is particularly adapted to farming, stock raising and dairying. The fertile soil lends itself to the growth of tobacco, wheat, corn, and hay. On the whole, it can be designated as a region in which advanced methods are applied. The counties maintain a system of good roads.

During the years included in this study there were 235 graduates from the high schools of these three counties but due to elimination because of inaccurate data and death the study was confined to 218 of these graduates of which number 84 were boys and 134 were girls.

These are some of the points of special interest pointed out in the treatment of the data:

Of the 218 graduates studied, 133, or 61 per cent entered some college and 76, or 35 per cent remained on the farm or sought other employment.

Sixty-eight per cent of the boys and 56 per cent of the girls went to college and of these 44 per cent of the boys and 31 per cent of the girls graduated, while 56 per cent of the boys and 69 per cent of the girls dropped out before graduating.

Out of those entering college 90 per cent of the boys and 43 per cent of the girls attended Liberal Arts colleges, and 10 per cent of the boys and 75 per cent of the girls attended teachers colleges. It is also noted that 25 per cent of the boys and 75 per cent of the girls who went to college entered the teaching profession.

The findings further reveal that 31.2 per cent of the boys remained on the farm and 48.4 per cent of the girls became home makers.

Four of the fifteen high schools in these three counties offered vocational agriculture, one offered vocational civics and one offered commercial subjects, and of the 218 graduates studied, 18.8 took school subjects of a vocational nature.

When asked if they felt that they had been helped by the high school curriculum in their choice of vocations 7 per cent of the graduates stated that they felt they had been helped and 93 per cent of them stated that they felt they had not been helped.

It was noted that the boys and girls showed a tendency to shift from one occupation to another. The occupations in which the graduates were found to be engaged are listed below. Each is followed by the per cent of the total found in that occupation: Home makers, 29.9; teachers, 19.3; farmers, 11.9; clerks, 11; stenographers, 6.2; nothing, 3; chemists, 2.3; business administration, 2.3; preachers, 1.4; lawyers, 1.4; nurses, 1.4; insurance agents, 1.4; army and navy, 1.4; bus drivers, 1.4; mechanics, .9; mail carriers, .9; telephone operators, .9; doctors, .5; athletic coach, .5; surveyors, .5; funeral director, .5; tobacco buyer, .5; seamstress, .5.

Taking into consideration the data secured from the study of these 218 high school graduates and previous studies made in the field the writer concludes:

1. That the present high school curricula seem to prepare students to enter college.
2. That a large number of rural high school graduates do not remain on the farm.
3. That boys and girls do not receive the proper guidance in choosing the occupation or profession for which they are best suited.
4. That high schools do not prepare boys and girls to make a living.
5. That there is need for a vocational guidance program in the high school.

34. Payne, Virgil French. *The Selective Character of Secondary Education in Nashville*. June, 1931. Pp. 97.

Problem. The purpose of this study is to show how the social status of the family affects the character of secondary education in Nashville. The factors used in the determination of the social status of the family are: whether or not the father owns the business in which he is engaged; the nationality of the parents; whether the parents are living or not; the occupation of the father; the size of the family; whether the mother is employed in remunerative services outside the home.

Limitations of the Study. Since the primary source of data used in this study was questionnaires filled out by the students the limitations would be those commonly found when questionnaires are used. The questions were quite definite and the temptation to exalt the father's business was removed by not requiring the pupil to give his name, so it is assumed that the information concerning the occupational status of the fathers is reliable. However, less reliability is likely to prevail in the statements of the vocational choices of the pupils.

This study is not selective even though three small private schools were used in the study; the enrollment in these schools was so small as not to exert a significant influence on the group as a whole.

Sources of Data. A questionnaire patterned after that given by Counts on page 6 of his study, *The Selective Character of Secondary Education in America*, was filled out by 3,048

pupils in fourteen high schools in Nashville, Tennessee. All public and private high schools for both white and colored children were included. Material of a similar nature for St. Louis, Seattle, Mount Vernon, and Bridgeport found in Counts' study was used for purposes of comparison.

Technique used in the Study. The pupils were given no warning or preparation for filling out the questionnaires, but all teachers were given the same written instructions and were told that the chief purpose was to find out the extent of high school attendance from each occupational group. Each student filled out the questionnaire, and returned it to his home room teacher.

The occupational classification given by Counts on page 22 of his *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education* was used in classifying the occupations of the fathers. In the event the father had died or had retired the pupil was classified in the occupational group in which his father had been employed. The mother's classification was not used because it has little if any influence on the social status of the family.

Findings and Conclusions. It was learned that the percentages of the occupations of the fathers or guardians of the 3,048 students in the fourteen high schools of Nashville included in this study were as follows: commercial, 17.1; managerial, 13.5; professional, 11.0; miscellaneous, 10.5; clerical, 8.6; proprietor, 7.6; transportation service, 6.3; labor, 5.7; machine, 5.5; building trade, 4.0; public service, 2.7; agriculture, 1.9; unknown, 1.7; printer, 1.4; artisan, 1.3; and not given, 1.2.

A study of the selection of the academic and commercial courses by pupils in thirteen of the high schools revealed the following facts:

Parental Occupation	Per Cent Selecting	
	General Course	Commercial Course
Proprietor	66.1	33.9
Professional Service	81.2	18.8
Managerial Service	60.9	39.1
Commercial Service	71.5	28.5
Clerical Service	67.1	32.9
Miscellaneous	52.5	47.5
Transportation Service	48.6	51.4

Public Service	50.8	49.2
Building Trades	33.6	66.4
Machine Trades	42.1	57.9
Agriculture	54.3	45.7
Artisan Trades	47.0	53.0
Not given	70.0	30.0
Unknown	40.0	60.0
Labor	50.6	49.4
Printer	59.3	40.7
All Occupations	55.9	44.1

An expression of whether they intended to go to college disclosed a range from 60.4 per cent of the girls whose fathers were in professional service to 30.8 whose fathers were engaged in the unknown trades, and the boys showed a still wider range of 76 per cent for professional services and 30 per cent for the unknown trades.

From these and other data presented, the writer concludes "that parental occupations do influence the expectations of children following graduation."

The writer devoted one chapter to a consideration of the data from the negro high school. He learned that for the 700 negro students the percentage of the fathers found in the different occupational groups were as follows: proprietors, 2.0; professional service, 8.0; managerial service, 1.4; commercial service, 1.9; clerical service, 3.1; miscellaneous, 13.7; transportation service, 1.0; public service, 6; building trades, 5.7; machine trades, 8.1; agriculture, 7.7; personal service, 16.6; unknown, 9.0; common labor, 19.1; printers, 1.4; and artisans, .6.

In considering the family influences surrounding the negro high school student, it was found that one or both parents of 15.6 per cent of the pupils were dead, while the corresponding percentage for white children was 8 per cent. In Nashville 24.8 per cent of the negro mothers helped support the family while only 10.4 per cent of the mothers of the white children did so.

These conclusions are among those drawn by the writer:

There is a very close relation between parental occupation and the privileges of secondary education. Parental occupation is a strong factor in determining the curriculum the child will follow. The groups poorly represented as a rule patronize

the short, more practical courses. A statement of college intentions by the pupils reveals that this selective principle continues to operate beyond the high school.

Disorganization of the home through the death of a parent diminishes the opportunities for secondary education; and the engagement of mothers in remunerative occupation seems to have the same effect.

The size of the family has little if any effect upon secondary educational opportunities.

A small percentage of the negroes of high school age is found in high school, and of those found there the number of the girls is much greater than that of boys. A higher proportion of the negroes than of white students expressed an intention to go to college.

The foreign population of Nashville is not significant enough to affect secondary education materially.

In the private high schools of Nashville there is a more select group than in the public high schools.

35. Frost, Frank Harold. *A Study of Athletics in England's Secondary Schools and Universities*. June, 1932. Pp. 54.

Problem. This study was undertaken with the idea that it might disclose some interesting and significant information concerning the English ideals and philosophy of athletics and that with this information as a basis, some recommendations could be made for overcoming the over-emphasis current in American athletics.

Limitations. This study is confined to athletics among boys and men in the English secondary schools and universities.

Sources of Data. All data were obtained from books and articles appearing in periodicals treating athletics in the English schools.

Technique used in the Study. The material of the sources was analyzed to obtain English practices related to certain criticisms made of athletics in American schools, and the English ideals and philosophy were thus studied in reference to their implications to general school athletics.

Findings and Conclusions. The common criticisms of the ideals and practices of athletics in the secondary schools and universities of the United States are: too much specialization; too much time given to athletics; coaches have too much authority; lack of participation for all because of an inadequate intra-mural program; too much money spent for equipment; over-emphasis on athletics; failure of athletics to carry-over because of little participation of a recreational nature offered in our schools; over-training; playing to the spectators, and playing to win awards.

It is generally recognized that the English do not take their sports and the routine of preparation for games as seriously as do the people of the United States. Among the various reasons suggested for this are: traditional standards of support that have been built up in England; geographical differences; the fact that the English are more interested in competing than in looking on.

In England there is a notable lack of specialization by individuals for they go in for a variety of sports preferring to play several well enough to derive recreational values from them than to be an expert in one. Most of the coaching is done by the captains of the clubs (teams), by more expert players, or by invited masters or dons; paid coaches are few. There is no organized cheering at the games.

The writer includes in his study the athletic activities of two types of secondary schools, the public schools and the day schools. Public schools are mainly boarding schools where the high fees practically insure their being schools for sons of the wealthy. Eaton, Rugby, and Harrow are representatives of this type of school. The state-aided day schools correspond to the American public high school and King's College School, Liverpool Collegiate School are representatives of this group.

In the public school daily program adequate provision is made for sports in every season of the year and the schools are provided with spacious fields and other facilities for games. But in the day schools the fields are usually distant from the schools and the dons are hesitant about going a great distance and giving so much of their time to athletics when they receive no added compensation for their trouble.

In both types of schools intramural sports are stressed. As a rule these contests draw few spectators except when games are being played to determine school championships.

Interschool contests are common for rugby football, cricket, and rowing, and while the rivalry is keen between schools the prevailing spirit seems to be of a social nature and is very friendly. Many spectators attend these games but there is no organized cheering.

At Oxford and Cambridge athletics is recognized as an important part of the student life and adequate provision is made for them both in scheduling the classes and in physical equipment of the institutions. The units of competition in these universities for intramural sports are the college amalgamated clubs and the program is financed by dues paid to these clubs. In the newer universities, and one is so classified if it was founded since 1826, the intramural athletic program is not as extensive as in the older institutions because of the crowded conditions of the buildings and other factors.

It is interesting to note that personal athletic equipment is purchased by the individual students and that awards for athletics are usually of the simplest nature.

Since a large proportion of the students in the English secondary schools and colleges participate in athletics and, since the English attitude is more that of a participant than of a spectator the carry-over of school sports is great.

Recommendations. The writer feels that the ideals and the philosophy of the English has several contributions to make which will tend to lessen the over-emphasis of athletics current in American educational institutions. He offers the following characteristics of the English program as suggestive of steps to be taken:

1. Non-specialization in sports.
2. Less intense training and general preparation for games.
3. Less authority to the coaches.
4. No organized cheering.
5. A great system of intramural games and athletics which place active participation on a par with the

other educational processes, for it is in this that lies a great deal of the explanation for there being little over-emphasis of athletics in England.

36. King, Ruth Pye. *The Development of Secondary Education in China*. June, 1927. Pp. 49.

Problem. This study seeks to show the development of secondary education in China.

Limitations of the Study. Few statistics on secondary education in China are available⁶, and the reliability of these is questioned, so statistics play a small part in this study. The unreliability of the educational statistics is based upon the fact that the teachers, for the most part, were paid according to the number of pupils enrolled and this practice is known to have resulted in inaccurate reports.

Sources of Data. The data were gathered from histories of China, general histories of education, annual reports of the United States Commissioner of Education, Educational Yearbooks, Mission Yearbooks, China Yearbooks, books by Chinese educators, current periodicals and from personal experiences and observations during eight years of habitation in China.

Technique used in the Study. The data are discussed under these headings:

The Old System prior to 1842.

The Transition Stage, 1842-1905.

The First Period of Modern Education, 1905-1912.

The Second Period of Modern Education, 1912-1922.

The Present System, since 1922.

Findings and Conclusions. The writer's summary is quoted in full:

"The old examination system was in effect, with practically no alteration, from 700 A. D. to the opening of the treaty ports in 1842. When a change became necessary, the over-enthusiastic leaders attempted to establish over-night a system of modern schools patterned after the various Western nations. The first secondary schools resembled somewhat the American high school of the type, 1905. The plan did not

succeed, consequently, with the establishment of the Republic in 1912, a second system was outlined by the government.

"This second system, because it was patterned too much after the school systems of Germany and Japan, was in effect only a short time. Chinese educators soon found that it was not suited to Chinese life. As a consequence, after experiments with several different types of schools, a third system known as the New System was drawn up. This new system showed noticeably the influence of American ideals of education. In all probability this was due to the visits of American educators as well as to the fact that many of the leading Chinese educators had received their education in the United States.

"Thus the record of the development of secondary education in China shows a change from a system of stagnation and crystallized conservatism to a hybrid system effected by an overdose of Western progressiveness. This change has been brought about in a few tens of years by a relatively small number of individuals who have come in contact with Western learning and civilization from the mission schools, the commercial world, or from students who have studied abroad. These leaders have succeeded in getting even the masses of China to realize that if China does not wish to disintegrate, she must educate her millions.

"In 1923 there were 1,435 middle schools in China. Some of these were farcical, but many of them were doing constructive work. Whether the present system of secondary education patterned to a certain extent after the American schools is going to meet the need in and of the life of the nation remains to be seen. It appears to be more practicable for the Chinese people. Since it has succeeded as well as it has during the past three or four years in spite of flood, fighting, fire, and famine, there is hope that China may yet find herself and thus make her contribution to the world in secondary education."

37. Bitzer, David Rolston. *Stimulating Reflection in Religious Education*. August, 1930. Pp. 82.

Problem. The purpose of this study was to determine, as far as possible, the extent to which the material found in a

new church school course. "The Life and Teachings of Jesus," or Parts 1, 2, and 3, of Course IX, published by the Graded Lessons Syndicate, will or can be useful in stimulating reflection.

Limitations of the Study. The writer notes these limitations: First, reflection cannot be objectively weighed and measured, hence it is necessary to rely upon a compilation of consensus of opinions of those persons who can speak authoritatively in determining the meaning of the term.

Second, the conclusions reached in studying the actual material of the course analyzed are to a large degree subjective.

Sources of Data. Data used in this study were derived from two sources; first, from the writings of authorities discussing the nature of reflection and the means of stimulating it and, second, from the church school course, "The Life and Teachings of Jesus," or Parts 1, 2, and 3 of Course IX, published by the Graded Lessons Syndicate.

Technique used in the Study. First the writer proceeded to study the works of Dewey and other authorities to determine the nature of reflection and the means by which it can be stimulated, then he applied the criteria resulting from this investigation to the course to be analyzed to discover if it is effective and also where it can be improved.

Findings and Conclusions. Reflection seems to be that mode of evolving responses to stimuli which involves: (1) a clear formulation of the problem in mind, and (2) a mental attack upon it, by means of language mechanisms, until some one solution emerges as satisfactory. The steps of the process are: (1) formulating the problem, (2) securing hypotheses, (3) criticising hypotheses, (4) organizing results.

Basing his opinion on the tacit assumptions of writers in general, and the research of Ruger in particular, the writer held that the ability to think can be improved. He found, also, that all writers agreed that the school can assist greatly in this improvement.

A series of questions were formulated as criteria by which the study of the religious education material could be guided to an answer of the question which he was attempting to solve.

These questions are:

1. Are the questions real problems?
2. Are the issues raised worth while?
3. Are the pupils shown their inability to meet these problems unaided?
4. Are the problems clearly stated?
5. Is the discussion organized in accordance with the steps of reflection?
6. Is wandering discouraged?
7. Do the pupils suggest the solutions?
8. Are all suggestions critical?
9. Are the results utilized?

Using these questions as criteria, the course of study was examined critically and the following conclusions reached:

The questions raised are real questions.

The issues raised are worthwhile.

To a certain extent the pupils are shown their inability to meet these problems unaided.

Except as regards the questions for class discussion the problems are not clearly stated.

To a large extent the discussion is organized in accord with the steps of reflection.

Wandering is discouraged to a small extent.

It is probable that the pupils suggest the solutions.

All suggestions are criticized.

The results are utilized.

Finally the writer concluded that the course of study analyzed offers a number of features which should make it an excellent instrument for stimulating reflection on Religious Education; that the emphasis is decidedly upon problem-solving rather than upon memorization of content and that every effort is being made to bring the problems presented into vital contact with the lives of the pupils. He found the chief weakness of the course to be its failure to organize the lesson material as a whole about any one specific problem for each chapter, and he made a number of specific suggestions for remedying this defect.

38. Rutledge, Warner Grayson. *High School Attendance and Vocational Choice*. June, 1932. Pp. 86.

Problem. The purpose of this study was to determine the difference between the vocational choices, and attendant influences, of seniors in high school and of ninth-grade pupils.

Limitations of the Study. The writer noted these limitations:

1. Only the pupils of the public high schools of Nashville, Tennessee, were used in the study.
2. All conclusions were based upon the statements of the pupils.
3. No attempt was made to measure the intelligence, aptitudes, or abilities of the pupils studied.

Sources of Data. The data used were obtained from questionnaires returned by 186 senior boys, 273 senior girls, 443 ninth-grade boys, and 536 ninth-grade girls enrolled in the public high schools of Nashville, Tennessee.

Technique used in the Study. Much thought and study was given to the preparations of the questionnaire in order to insure that the facts sought would be secured. All teachers co-operating in the endeavor were made familiar with the purpose of the study and given the information necessary for guiding the pupils in filling out the questionnaires.

In tabulating the vocational choices the classification used by Counts in his "Selective Character of American Secondary Education" was employed.

Findings and Conclusions. Occupational choices of senior boys revealed that 32.79 per cent of them expected to enter the professions, 29.57 had made no decision, and that the only other groups receiving an appreciable number of choices were clerical service with 10.75 per cent and commercial service with 6.45 per cent.

Of the senior girls 35.16 per cent chose clerical service, 28.94 per cent professional service, and 30.03 per cent were undecided. No other classification was selected by as many as three per cent of these girls.

Of the ninth-grade boys, 36.12 per cent were undecided, 28.67 per cent preferred the professions, 9.48 per cent trans-

portation, 6.55 per cent miscellaneous and 5.80 per cent public service. No other of the comparatively large range of selections claimed as many as three per cent of these boys.

Of the ninth-grade girls 33.02 preferred clerical service, 32.09 per cent professional service and 29.85 were undecided. Six other service preferences were indicated but the highest, miscellaneous service, claimed only 2.05 per cent of the girls.

After an analysis of the findings, only a small portion of which are indicated above, the writer concludes:

1. That seniors in high school seek the professions and allied occupations to a greater extent than pupils in the ninth grade.
2. That the influence of observations as a factor in determining occupational choice is mentioned most frequently by seniors; while the influence of teachers is mentioned most frequently by ninth grade pupils.
3. That high school seniors take into account the more fundamental reasons for vocational choice than do pupils of the ninth grade.
4. That high school attendance increases college expectancy among boys; while it decreases it among girls.
5. That neither senior nor ninth grade pupils confine their vocational choices to the occupations of their fathers.
6. That the occupational choices of pupils are not distributed, even within reasonable proportions, according to the distribution of gainful workers in Nashville.
7. That vocational choices are made during the latter part of the junior high school period, extending throughout the period of secondary education.
8. Of those pupils who have professional choices in the senior year, practically three-fourths state that they had the same choice in the ninth grade.
9. That seniors in high school show only a slightly greater range of occupational choices than ninth grade pupils.

Recommendations. Among the recommendations made (1) Since almost a third of the pupils are seeking the professions and practically another third are undecided, courses in occupational information be provided; (2) since observation plays an important part in vocational selection, the school's should make provision for observation of the occupations; (3) that the school and parents co-operate closely in planning courses for preparation for and participation in gainful occupations; (4) that the schools institute a program of personal counseling and guidance to assist the pupils in the selection of and in the preparation for gainful occupation.

39. Whittaker, Martha Rebecca. *Cost of Home Economics in State High Schools of Tennessee.* June, 1932. Pp. 123.

Problem. This study was undertaken for the purpose of determining the instructional cost of teaching home economics in the four year state high schools of the state of Tennessee for the school year 1930-1931. A secondary purpose was to determine, as far as the data permitted, the factors which contribute to the instructional cost per pupil of home economics.

Limitations of the Study. The reviewer notes these limitations:

1. The study is restricted to the cost of instruction only and no other factors contributing to the total cost of teaching the subject are included.
2. Costs for the school year of 1930-1931 only were studied.

Sources of Data. All data included in the study of the cost of instruction in Tennessee high schools were obtained from the reports for these high schools on file in the office of the State Supervisor of High Schools.

A review of the literature of the field supplied data of a general nature.

Technique Used in the Study. Tabulations were made of each school for the total enrollment, the number of teachers, total salary of teachers, total instructional cost per pupil, salary of home economic teachers, and the distribution of the

salary of the home economics teachers to the different subjects which they taught. The schools were classified according to enrollment and whether they were vocational schools or not. The teachers' salaries were prorated according to the time given to home economics and other subjects and the instructional cost was then found by dividing the total salary assigned to a subject by the number of pupils enrolled in that subject. This procedure gave as the unit of measurement the cost of teaching one student for one scholastic year, or the cost per high school unit of instruction per pupil.

The lower and upper quartiles, and the median was found for each distribution employed and these medians and quartiles were made into summary tables for purposes of comparison. The reliability of the differences in the medians, the probable error of the medians, and the probable error of the differences of the medians and the reliability of the differences of the medians were found.

Findings and Conclusions. In the 342 schools included in the study there were 369 teachers of home economics, and 85 per cent of them taught other subjects in addition to home economics.

The instructional cost per pupil for all instruction was found to range from \$32.50 to \$133.00, while in home economics the instructional cost per pupil ranged from \$7.50 to \$78.75 per pupil. The median cost per pupil for all instruction was \$60.92 and for instruction in home economics it was \$22.00.

A summary of the findings in this study disclosed that the instructional cost in home economics in the various groups into which the schools were classified showed the same trend as the cost of instruction in all subjects; the instructional cost was higher in schools with an enrollment of 50-74 than in schools with an enrollment of 75 or more; the cost of instruction for schools with an enrollment of less than fifty was higher than for any other group of schools.

The indications were that the cost of instruction in home economics increased with the length of time devoted to it, and it was found that in schools with an enrollment of less than 50 and between 50 and 74 the enrollment in the subject and the time given to it were more vital in determining the cost of instruction than the salaries of the teachers.

It was found that the instructional cost of home economics in schools with an enrollment of 75 or more was 36.5 per cent of the total instructional cost per pupil.

The class enrollment and the time given to the classes were both found to be vital factors in determining per pupil costs.

In comparing the cost of instruction in home economics in the vocational schools with that in the other types of schools it was disclosed that the per pupil cost was greater in the vocational schools, and it was found that this was due primarily to the fact that the salary median was 50 per cent higher in vocational schools than in the other schools.

Among the conclusions drawn, which were not directly implied in the summary of findings, we find:

After the total enrollment of the school reaches 75 the variations in the total instructional cost per pupil and in the instructional cost per pupil in home economics are not large.

As the amount of time given to home economics departments increases, either in length of class period or number of classes, the instructional cost per pupil increases, in schools in which the enrollment is below 75.

Low salaries in small schools do not prevent high instructional costs per pupil either for the school as a whole, or for home economics.

The enrollment in a department of home economics and the time given to classes are more potent factors in determining instructional cost per pupil than the salaries of teachers.

In schools with enrollments of 75 or more the instructional cost per pupil for the school as a whole, and for the home economics department also, is influenced more by the length of the class period than by any other factor.

If the home economics classes should be placed on the same class time schedule as is found in science, or in single period classes, in schools with enrollments above 75 the instructional cost per pupil would be the same as in the other classes. In schools with enrollments below 75 this same condition would prevail except in the event of a decrease in departmental enrollment due to a small total enrollment.

The instructional cost per pupil for teaching of home economics is influenced by the same factors as affect such unit cost for the total school, or as affect such cost for any other subject of the curriculum.

40. Bankston, Marvin Stewart. *Comparison of White Agricultural and Consolidated High Schools in Mississippi, 1926-1927.* June, 1928. Pp. 87.

Problem. The problem of this study is to make a concrete comparison of the organization in the white Agricultural High Schools in Mississippi with the organization in the white Consolidated High Schools in Mississippi.

Limitations of the Study. The study was limited to 97 high schools in Mississippi appearing on the accredited list of the State Department of Education. The comparison of the two groups of schools was limited to four considerations: (1) teachers; (2) course of study; (3) class organization; (4) equipment. The study was limited in time to the academic year of 1926-1927.

Sources of Data. The data of this study were secured by the use of a questionnaire sent to the principals of the 97 schools studied and from the State Superintendent's high school reports to the State Department of Education for 1926-1927.

Technique used in the Study. The method of the study was analytical making use of questionnaires from high school principals and high school reports from the office of the State Superintendent. Inasmuch as the study was an attempt to find the actual status of the high schools studied for the period 1926-1927 the study was of the normative method.

Findings and Conclusions.

1. The Agricultural High School of Mississippi has the more favorable position with reference to (a) numbers of teachers employed, (b) number of full-time teachers employed, (c) academic training of teachers, (d) salary of staff, (e) number of high school units offered, (f) number of units offered in agriculture, home economics, and English (g) pupil enrollment,

(h) teacher load of superintendent, (i) money invested in buildings per pupil, (j) money invested in furnishings per pupil, and (k) number of volumes in the school library.

2. The Consolidated High School of Mississippi has the more favorable position with reference to (a) professional training of teachers, (b) range of course of study, and (c) teacher load of teachers.
3. The Agricultural High School and the Consolidated High School stand on approximately equal footing with reference to (a) teaching experience of teachers, (b) number of units offered in history and mathematics, and (c) length of daily recitation and length of school term.

41. Vickers, James A. *A Statistical Report of the Secondary-Schools of the Southern States.* June, 1932. Pp. 205.

Problem. This study is an investigation of the statistics upon secondary schools of the Southern States. School enrolments by grades, various types of school organizations, number of accredited schools, the number of high school teachers, and the per capita cost of average attendance in the different states are considered.

Limitations of the Study. In addition to the limitations implied in the statement of the purpose of the study it is noted that the data studied range from the year 1905 to the year 1931 inclusive. The states included in the study are: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia.

Sources of Data. The data for this study, presented in the form of tables, were obtained from the following principal sources: (1) The Bureau of Education Bulletins, (2) Proceedings of the North Central Association, (3) Proceedings of the Southern Association, (4) High School Quarterly, (5) Biennial reports of the State Superintendents of the Southern States, and (6) information secured through correspondence with the state superintendents and the chief clerk of the Office of Education at Washington, D. C.

Technique used in the Study. The data were classified and treated statistically so as to give a presentation of present conditions, and a depiction of trends, and also to determine its predictive values.

Part I of the study dealt with the senior high school; giving a comparison of enrollments by grades in the different types of high schools, and a comparison by types of schools. It compared the sixteen southern states with respect to enrollment and school population, number of high schools accredited by the state and regional accrediting agencies, number of teachers and the per capita cost of education. Part II dealt with the junior high schools and gave a comparison by states of types of junior high schools, enrollment by grades, number of teachers, and the number accredited by the North Central Association. Part III presented data for the colored schools and gave comparisons by states of types of high schools, enrollment by grades, total colored school enrollments and population, number of accredited high schools, and number of colored high school teachers. The concluding chapter sums up the data and gives conclusions.

Findings and Conclusions. *Indications of Growth:* The data collected indicated a great increase in secondary education in the south during the period from 1900 to 1930. Between 1911 and 1930 public high school enrollment, white and colored combined, increased from 203,714 to 820,600 or 235 per cent and during the same period the growth in enrollment in private secondary schools increased from 39,935 to 44,790, or 37 per cent.

An outstanding growth was shown in the enrollment of colored public high schools and between 1920 and 1928 the enrollment increased from 14,572 to 73,541, approximately 400 per cent. During this same period the enrollment in white public schools showed an increase of 81 per cent.

In 1920 there were 25,345 junior high school pupils reported in the states included in the study and by 1928 148,350 were reported, an increase of 486 per cent.

For the year 1900 a little over 100,000 pupils were reported in Southern high schools and by 1930 the enrollment had grown to over 1,000,000, an increase of approximately 1,000 per cent. However, since junior high school enrollment

is included in the number for 1930 these figures are invalid for an exact comparison.

The number of public senior high schools increased from 1,523 in 1905 when the average enrollment per school was 80, to 4,276 in 1928 when the average enrollment per school was approximately 160.

There were 7,359 teachers in the high schools of the South in 1905. In 1928 approximately eight times the 1905 number or 56,336 teachers were reported. During this same period the number of pupils taught had increased slightly less than seven times the 1905 number.

Indications of Trends: The tendency to keep a larger percentage of the school's population in secondary schools is indicated by the increase from 4 per cent of this group enrolled in high school in 1905 to 17 per cent in 1928.

An increase of 400 per cent in the enrollment in colored high schools indicates a tendency to make greater provisions for secondary education for the colored population.

In 1928 of the 129 junior high schools reported 70 were of the two-year type, but in 1928 of the 333 junior high schools reported only 27 were of the two-year type, 234 the three-year type, and 62 were reported as four-year organizations.

The number of state accredited schools in 1930 was 6,218, approximately three and one-half times as many as in 1900, while the number accredited by the regional accrediting agencies increased from 70 in 1900 to 1,276 in 1930.

As previously noted, the number of pupils taught and the number of teachers increased by 7 and 8 respectively between 1905 and 1928 indicating a trend of fewer pupils per teacher.

Indications of Improvement: Data given as indications of growth and indications of trends also indicate improvements. In addition to the improvements shown above these are also shown by the study:

Considering the sixteen states as a whole 2 per cent of the whole school population graduated in 1928 whereas only one-third of one per cent graduated in 1905.

The organization of the high schools into administrative types more adaptable to the needs of the pupils and the communities, namely the junior high school, the senior high school,

and the addition of the junior college, shows a distinct improvement over the conventional four-year high school universally reported at the beginning of the century.

Secondary schools function better when their enrollment does not necessitate few teachers and a scant offering of subject matter. The increase in the average size of the secondary schools of the South indicates a possibility of improvement by greater specialization of the teachers and a wider curricular offering in the individual school.

The greater growth of public secondary schools as compared to the private schools points to the greater improvement of the public schools.

In 1905 no southern state showed a per capita school cost equal to that of the nation. The average per capita costs of the southern states in 1905 was \$11.78 and that for the nation was \$25.40. In 1928, Florida spent more for education than the average per capita cost of the nation, which was \$105.80. Between 1905 and 1928, while the nation as a whole was increasing per capita costs from \$25.40 to \$105.80 the southern states increased their per capita costs from \$11.78 to \$61.62. The ratio of increase for the South is to the ratio of increase for the United States as 5 is to 4, indicating that the South is increasing its expenditure for education more rapidly than the nation as a whole. This continuous increase in expenditure predicts the possibilities of improvement and leadership for education in the South.

42. Brooks, Burrow Penn. *"Ability of High School Seniors to Recognize Causes of Teacher Failure."* August, 1932. Pp. 65.

The Problem. To determine, if possible, whether or not high school seniors can be relied upon to give accurate and dependable judgment of teacher failure.

Limitations of the Study. The data gathered were confined entirely to the state of Mississippi. The term *teacher failure* was limited to lack of promotion after several years of teaching or failure to be re-elected to present position if they so desired.

Source of Data. Analysis of twenty-four studies on teacher failures representing the rating of 718 teachers and 14,499 pupils. A list of the chief causes of teacher failure secured from 992 high school seniors in 42 high schools of Mississippi. Check lists made from the above list were submitted to 653 college freshmen in 20 institutions representing every type. The same check list was also submitted to 407 regular teachers from 25 schools representing all types. Finally the check list was sent to 108 administrators who likewise check it. Twenty-one hundred and sixty persons in all contributed to the investigation.

Techniques used in the Study. The data collected from the above sources were compared and co-efficients of correlation between them were computed. In like manner data collected from an analysis of 24 previous studies of a similar nature were compared with the findings of this investigation.

Findings and Conclusions. The fifteen items most frequently mentioned by 992 high school seniors as causes of teacher failure in Mississippi were: poor discipline, partiality, quick temper, poor explanation, lack of sympathy, indifference, lack of knowledge of subject matter, poor presentation, laxity in requirements, lack of personality, bad humor, ridicule or sarcasm, lack of unity in class discussion, unreasonableness, too much interest in own pleasure.

Correlations among the four agencies, namely, high school seniors, college freshmen, regular teachers and administrators that listed causes of teacher failure on the check list were computed by the Spearman Rank Method. They were as follows:

High school seniors and college freshmen.....	.588 ⁺	.11
High school seniors and regular teachers.....	.487 ⁺	.13
High school seniors and administrators.....	.464 ⁺	.14
College freshmen and regular teachers.....	.697 ⁺	.08
College freshmen and administrators.....	.600 ⁺	.09
Regular teachers and administrators.....	.885 ⁺	.05
High school seniors and all who contributed to the 24 other studies of a similar nature.....	.925 ⁺	.015

It may be concluded that the reliability of high school seniors on causes of teacher failure would rank last among the four groups studied. High school seniors do not recognize to a marked degree the traits that are causes of teacher failure.

Poor discipline was ranked as the chief cause of teacher failure by high school seniors, college freshmen, regular teachers and administrators.

43. Lawton, Samuel Miller. *Student Self Help in Certain Denominational Secondary-Schools*. June, 1927. Pp. 40.

Problem. This study was undertaken for the purpose of determining the status of student self help in certain secondary schools under the control of the Southern Baptist Home Mission Board.

Limitations of the Study. In addition to limiting the study to the secondary schools under the control of the Southern Baptist Home Mission Board, the study was further limited to conditions prevailing in those schools in the fall of 1926.

Sources of Data. All data were secured by questionnaires sent to the presidents of the twenty-five Baptist mountain secondary schools studied and also to students in these schools. More than two-thirds of the enrollment of the schools filled out and returned the student questionnaires.

Technique used in the Study. The data were assembled by tabulation under appropriate headings and after careful analysis findings were reported and conclusions drawn.

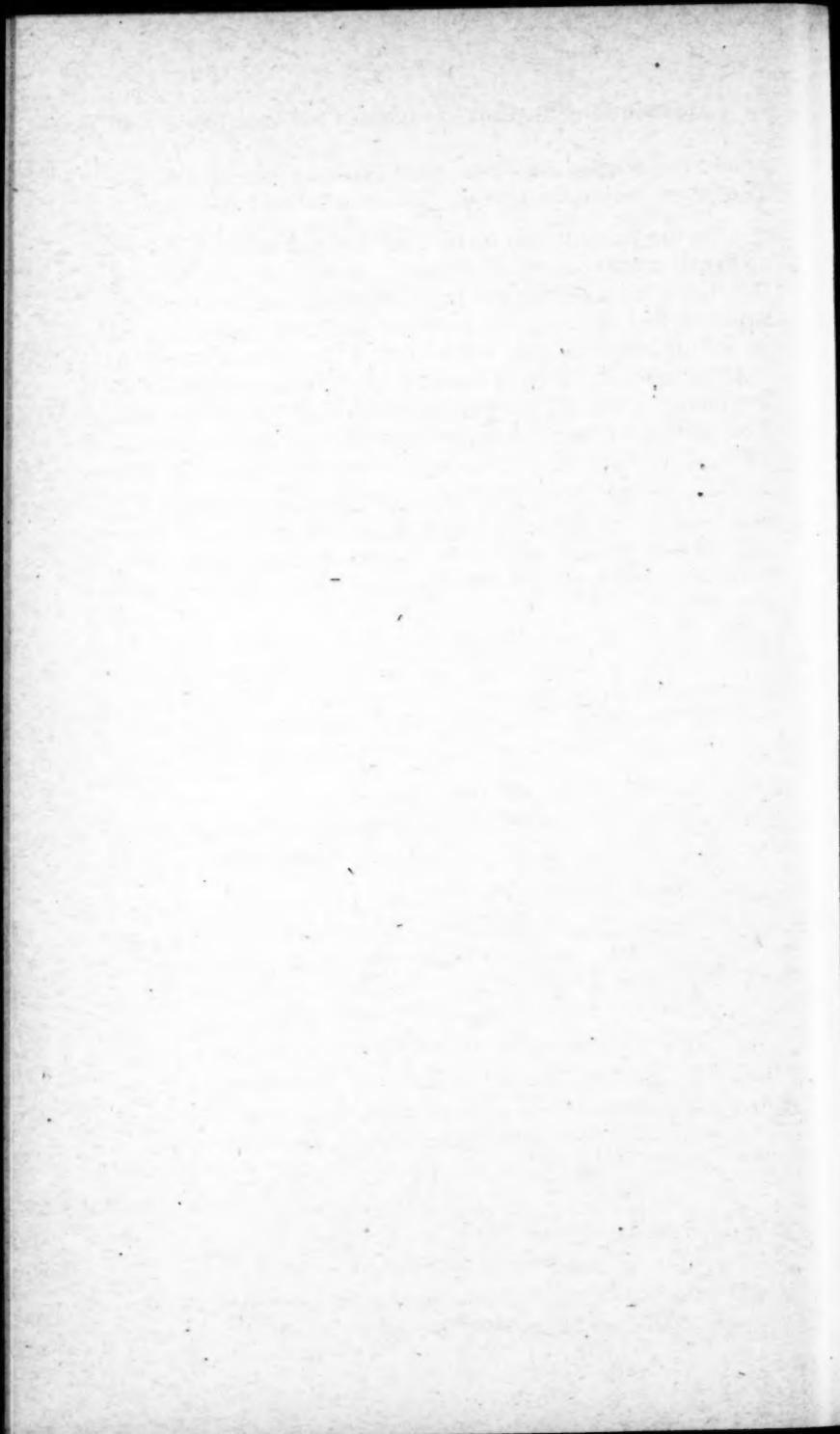
Findings and Conclusions. Of the 739 students replying to the questionnaire 294, or approximately 40 per cent, worked to pay part or all of their school expenses. A wide range of work was available and in all, 574 different positions were reported, indicating that individual students held several different positions during the school year.

No standard of pay was found for students; it varied from ten cents an hour for cutting wood to two dollars and fifty cents an hour for teaching, with a median pay per hour of 22½ cents for work offered by the school and 25 cents for work offered by the community.

With the exception of one or two institutions there seemed to be no significant difference between the total expenses for working and non-working students. The study disclosed that of the 294 working students reporting, 16 earned an amount

equal to or greater than their total expenses for the year and 97 of them earned 50 per cent or more of their expenses.

On the whole it was found that working students carried a slightly greater study load than non-working students, yet they maintained higher scholastic standing than non-working students, 22.4 per cent of the working students replying failed in one or more subject, whereas 39.5 per cent of the non-working students replying failed in one or more subject. Furthermore, of the 294 working students replying, 20 per cent took part in contests requiring scholastic ability while of the 445 non-working students replying only 12.8 per cent took part in such contests. The high standing of the working students is attested to by the fact that although they constituted only 39.7 per cent of the entire number replying to the questionnaire, they held 48.8 per cent of all the elective positions reported.



APPENDIX

Unpublished Masters' Theses in Secondary Education in the George Peabody College for Teachers Library, not included in the Abstracts of this bulletin.

PART I.

STUDIES DEALING WITH THE ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

1. Bennett, Claude. A Comparative Study of Negro High School Education in the States of Mississippi and Kentucky. June, 1926.
2. Brandon, Frederick Ryan. Some Cases of Co-operative Community School Building, August, 1927.
3. Brooks, Charles Weathersby Moorman. A Study of the Agricultural High Schools of Mississippi. August, 1926.
4. Dorsey, George Prentiss. The Small High School in Mississippi. June, 1930.
5. Falls, J. D. City Public High Schools in Kentucky. 1923.
6. Gregory, W. C. A Comparative Study of the White County High Schools and Graded High Schools of Kentucky. 1924.
7. Grise, F. C. Comparative Study of Certain High Schools of Tennessee. 1917.
8. Henlin, John Paul. Status of the Private Secondary Schools of Alabama. 1929.
9. Kyle, Zelma Talmage. The Effect of Re-organization of Secondary Education in Virginia. August, 1930.
10. Manier, D. L. The Status of Publicity in Tennessee High Schools. 1926.
11. Phillips, Carey William. Comparison of State and Southern Accredited High Schools in Alabama. August, 1930.
12. Ratcliffe, Orris Earle. Comparison of C-grade and A-grade County High Schools in Tennessee. August, 1930.
13. Stone, George Edward. Status of the County High School in Tennessee. 1921.

PART II.

STUDIES DEALING WITH THE STATUS AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

14. Blair, Stephen Henry. The Teacher's Load in the Hattiesburg, Mississippi, Junior High School. August, 1931.
15. Duncan, Harlan Lester. A Comparison of Junior and Senior High School Teachers of West Virginia. August, 1927.
16. Garrett, L. V. Study of Four Hundred Twenty-six Tennessee County High School Teachers. 1917.
17. Hyatt, O. W. Teacher Training in the Alabama High Schools. 1919.
18. McCormick, Luther Bartlett. Salaries of High School Teachers in South Carolina in 1926-1927. 1919.

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19. Stanford, Sue Shephard. State Regulations Governing Teachers of High Schools. 1927.
20. Turner, R. C. The Status of High School Mathematics Teachers in Kentucky. August, 1932.
21. Woodring, M. N. Proposed Plan for the Training of Secondary School Teachers. 1918.

PART III.

STUDIES DEALING WITH THE EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

22. Allison, Annie Claybrooks. Recording System of Deans in Secondary Schools for Girls. August, 1929.
23. Bowling, Albert. School Publications of Eight Daily Newspapers of Tennessee. August, 1926.
24. Elsea, Albert Felix. Student Participation in School Government in Missouri High Schools. June, 1923.
25. Sherman S. Howard. Status of Extra-Curricular Activities in Accredited High Schools of Alabama. 1929.

PART IV.

STUDIES DEALING WITH CURRICULAR PROBLEMS OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

26. Carter, Grace Mildred. The Popularity of Secondary School Subjects. August, 1927.
27. Graham, J. F. Combinations of Subjects Taught by the Georgia High School Teachers. 1929.
28. Jenkins, Frank C. State Prescribed Courses of Study in Southern High Schools. 1924.
29. Key, E. L. Entrance Requirements of North Carolina Colleges and State High School Courses of Study. 1926.
30. Reeves, S. N. An Annotated Bibliography of the Secondary School Curriculum. 1929.
31. Roemer, J. Curriculum of the University of Nashville and its Response to Social Demands. 1913.
32. Romine, William Rose. An Appraisal of Courses of Study for Secondary Schools. August, 1930.
33. Stewart, S. S. Statutory Curriculum Requirements for High Schools. 1923.
34. Wiley, W. M. Combinations of Subjects Taught by Tennessee High Schools.

PART V.

STUDIES DEALING WITH TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

35. Jennings, Doris. Comparative Study of I. Q. and Actual Achievement of High School Students. 1924.

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36. Pearson, John S. A Study of the Orleans Geometry Prognosis Test. August, 1932.
37. Walston, Amelia Watkins. Analysis of Marks and Intelligence Scores of 408 Pupils. August, 1930.

PART VI.

STUDIES DEALING WITH GENERAL METHODS OF INSTRUCTION AND CLASS-ROOM SUPERVISION IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

38. Caldrell, Leander Cox. The Relation of Pupil Activity to Achievement, June, 1925.
39. Davis, Lide L. How the Development of a Local Industry—the Cherry River Boom and Lumber Company—Aids the Teacher in Presenting Subject Matter in Concrete Form. August, 1921.
40. Dial, Henry Franklin. Comparative Results of Traditional Type Recitation and the Contract Plan. June, 1931.
41. Matthews, William Lewis. Supervising the High School Recitation by Lesson Analysis. 1927.
42. Meadows, J. C. Investigation of Supervised Study in Certain Classes of the Junior and Senior High Schools of Columbus, Mississippi. 1921.

PART VII.

STUDIES DEALING WITH SPECIAL METHODS IN THE VARIOUS SUBJECT-MATTER FIELDS OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

A—ENGLISH

43. Grasty, Isabel. Suggestions of Character Analysis by Physical Signs in English Classics. August, 1928.
44. Johnson, Ela. Contemporary Literature on the Production of Plays in High School. June, 1932.
45. Montgomery, Neva Wetzel. Study Helps in Literary Textbooks for Junior High Schools. 1929.
46. Scruggs, Mary. A Study of the Hudelson Typical Composition Ability Scale. June, 1930.
47. Taylor, Henry Clay. A Study of a Suggestive Method to improve Outside Reading. 1929.

B—MODERN LANGUAGES

48. Beadle, Paul. Achievement Tests in Elementary French. August, 1932.
49. Gilbert, Pauline. Extent of Activé-Passive French Vocabularies in Florida High Schools. June, 1932.
50. Green, Bessie L. Extent of Active-Passive Spanish Vocabularies in Florida High Schools. June, 1932.
51. Hernandez, Jose De. Laboratory Exercises for Essentials of Spanish. August, 1932.
52. Holland, Hazel A. A Gradation of Six French Tests. August, 1932.
53. Sims, C. C. A Diagnostic Latin Test for First and Second Year Pupils. 1922.

C—MATHEMATICS

54. Anderson, S. A. Some Factors Influencing Success in Plane Geometry. August, 1932.
55. Blair, Robert Virgil. Problem Method in Teaching Geometry. August, 1917.
56. Bowman, M. P. A Study of Verbal Problem Solving in Algebra. August, 1932.
57. Conoly, Mary McLean. Study of Some Difficulties in High School Algebra. August, 1924.
58. Cox, Willa Claire. What the State Universities are Requiring in Mathematics for Admission in Their Various Schools and Colleges. June, 1924.
59. Hankins, Carl. Individual Versus Group Instruction in Ninth-Grade Algebra. August, 1932.
60. Lanier, A. C. Mathematical Pre-requisites and Important Items of Solid Geometry. August, 1932.
61. McDonough, H. B. Development of Mathematics in the Secondary schools of the United States. August, 1932.
62. McMillin, Clair C. Examination Practices with Reference to Ninth Grade Algebra. August, 1932.
63. Moncrief, Ruth. A Tentative Course of Study in Junior High School Mathematics. August, 1932.
64. Ricks, Margaret. Investigation of Race Difference in the Development of a Standard Test in Algebra. 1916.
65. Shelton, Sam W. The Mathematical Pre-requisites of Plane Trigonometry. August, 1932.
66. Shuler, Eusebia. A Proposed Means of Teaching First Year Algebra in the Secondary Schools. 1924.
67. Sowry, Mary Elizabeth. General Mathematics for the High School. 1926.
68. Steen, Robert E. Measuring the Attainment of Seventh Grade Mathematics Objectives in Jackson. August, 1932.
69. Terry, Dell. Analysis of Some Plane Geometry Textbooks. August, 1932.
70. Whiteside, Stella. A Study of Prediction in First Year Algebra Through Standardized Tests. 1927.
71. Yarborough, W. H. Proposed Plan for the Teaching of Mathematics in Secondary Schools. 1923.

D—SOCIAL STUDIES

72. Bane, Charles, Lafayette. Organization of Material for Teaching History in Secondary Schools. Illustration: The Development of the American Foreign Policy. August, 1920.
73. Birdwell, A. W. Adaptation of History Material to the Problem Method of Presentation. August, 1916.
74. Crawford, Mary Ann. Parallel Readings Listed in Junior High School Textbooks. August, 1932.
75. Davis, Alta. Parallel Readings Listed in Junior High School Textbooks. June, 1932.

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76. Duck, Edward Walker. A Course of Study for United States History. June, 1931.
77. Hardy, Rosa Marion. Preparation of Teachers of the Social Studies in Arkansas High Schools. 1929.
78. Hubbell, Julia B. Suggested Plan for the Reorganization of Historical Material in Secondary Schools. 1922.
79. Jones, R. C. A Comparison of Grades Assigned to American History Test Papers.
80. Kilby, B. R. Relationships Between High School and College History. August, 1932.
81. Robbins, B. S. Teaching High School History with Special Reference to European History. 1924.
82. Smith, Edgar K. Treatment of Civil War in Junior High School History Texts. August, 1932.
83. Southerland, B. L. Collateral Reading Lists in Senior High School History Textbooks. August, 1932.
84. Swank, Mary Ivy. A Suggested Plan for Teaching History. June, 1932.
85. Walker, Percy. The Treatment of Tariff in Junior High School Textbooks. June, 1932.
86. Wilson, John James. Courses for Schools Failing to Secure Social Science Credits in Texas. 1926.

E—SCIENCE

87. Adams, Homer. Experiment on Determining the Value of a Notebook in General Science. August, 1932.
88. Brown, Helen Marie. Quantitative Analysis of Material and Illustrations in General Science. August, 1925.
89. Dunn, William Wallace. Efficiency of Instruction in High School Science as Measured by College Standards. August, 1916.
90. Dykes, Coy M. Comparison of Results of Two Methods of Presenting Laboratory Work. August, 1932.
91. Miller, Donald Wilson. Project vs. Topic Discussion Method for Practical Applications of Physics. 1926.
92. Oliphant, Thomas A. The Teaching of General Science in the Secondary Schools. 1925.
93. Reese, Charles David. Objectives of High School Biology. August, 1931.

F—LATIN

94. Bryson, Luther Leslie. A Comparison of the Teaching of Latin Composition in Mississippi with Accepted Standards. August, 1927.
95. Sims, C. C. A Diagnostic Latin Test for First and Second Year Pupils. 1922.

PART VIII.

STUDIES DEALING WITH PROBLEMS RELATING TO THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

96. Beasley, William. Unit Costs in Little Rock Junior High School. August, 1932.

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97. Hamon, Ray L. Florida Junior High School Manual. 1925.
98. Johnston, Asbury. A Proposed Junior High School Curriculum for the State of Kentucky. 1927.
99. West, Joseph Henry. The Junior High School in the Southern Association. August, 1931.
100. Zimmerman, John Wendell. The Junior High School Training School of the Teachers College.

PART IX.

STUDIES DEALING WITH ELIMINATION AND FAILURES IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL.

101. Ashcraft, Arthur Lee. Expectations of High School Boys and Girls as Revealed by Their Own Plans and the Careers of Their Older Brothers and Sisters. June, 1915.
102. Calvin, James Marion. Certain Implications of the History of the Class of 1916 of the High School of Princeton, Kentucky. August, 1916.
103. Deen, William George. Causes of Elimination and the Probable School Life of the Seventh Grade Pupils of A. B. Hill School, Memphis, Tennessee. August, 1918.
104. Kyle, Roy Everett. A Case Study of Failures in High School. August, 1931.
105. Morton, Walter P. An Analysis of Moore County, North Carolina, High School Eliminations. 1929.
106. Roland, Henry Isaac. A Study of Failures in Shelby County, Tennessee. August, 1930.

PART X.

STUDIES DEALING WITH THE HISTORY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

107. Anderson, Hugh Edgar. A History of Public Secondary Education in West Virginia. June, 1929.
108. Callaway, Iris. A Study of the Development of Secondary Education in Georgia. August, 1925.
109. Middlebrook, J. E. A History of the Academy in Tennessee. 1923.
110. Stoddard, J. A. Backgrounds of Secondary Education in South Carolina. 1924.

PART XI.

STUDIES DEALING WITH THE POPULATION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL.

111. Newton, Isaac Alton. The Selective Character of Secondary Education in Hinds County, Mississippi. August, 1931.
112. Yates, Cove Lee. The Selective Character of Secondary Education in Southeast Missouri. 1926.

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PART XII.

STUDIES DEALING WITH FOREIGN SCHOOL SYSTEMS OF SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVEL.

113. Hansell, S. G. Problems of Secondary Education of Women in Japan. 1918.
114. Olive, Lucius Bunyan. Government Control of Christian Schools in China. 1927.

PART XIII.

STUDIES DEALING WITH CHARACTER EDUCATION IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

115. Evans, Wm. K. Character Rating in Public High Schools of Tennessee. June, 1932.
116. Woodson, W. I. A Test of Moral Judgments Among College Students and Rural Teachers. 1923.

PART XIV.

STUDIES DEALING WITH CERTAIN PHASES OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

117. Armstrong, Rena K. Use of the Home Project in the Home-Making Course for Vocational High Schools. June, 1920.
118. Lander, C. H. Possibilities of Vocational Education in Tennessee. 1917.
119. Mobley, Clyde Elizabeth. A Study of the Development of Home Economics in Sunday School. 1927.
120. Shelby, Helen. The Teaching of Textiles in the Secondary Schools of Southern States. 1922.
121. Turner, G. H. Manual Training in Tennessee High Schools. 1924.
122. Youree, Alline. Status of Vocational Home Economics in Certain Southern States. August, 1932.

PART XV.

STUDIES DEALING WITH SURVEY TYPES OF WORK IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

123. Bell, William Cecelius. Brief Study of the Gallatin High School. August, 1916.
124. Bishop, John Masby. Accredited Versus Non-Accredited High Schools in Virginia. August, 1931.
125. Collins, Earl Augustus. Survey of Township and Community High Schools of Illinois. June, 1925.
126. Crawford, Georgene. The Rural High Schools of Henderson County, Kentucky. August, 1932.
127. Jones, H. W. The Status of the High School Principal in Oklahoma. August, 1932.

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128. Larabee, Lucy. Survey of Commercial Education in Tennessee Approved High Schools 1926-1931. August, 1932.
129. Middleton, G. H. A Study of White Public Secondary Education in Louisiana. 1924.
130. Miller, John. An Educational Survey of the Secondary Schools, Lake County, Florida. 1928.
131. Wood, Rolla F. Survey of the Four Year High Schools of Missouri.

PART XVI.

STUDIES DEALING WITH SOME MISCELLANEOUS PHASES OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

132. Bevill, Corrinne. Status of Accrediting Music Instruction in Secondary Schools of Arkansas. June, 1929.
133. DeGraw, Bessis. High School Department of the Nashville Agricultural and Normal Institute. August, 1932.
134. Mastin, R. G. Athletic Injuries. August, 1932.
135. Monroe, Albert Loomis. Survey of Masters' Theses in Secondary Education. August, 1931.
136. Rowland, W. T. What Civic Organizations Have Done and Are Doing for Boys. 1921.
137. Shock, Lillian I. Demand Made on George Peabody College for Its Product. 1920.
138. Stearns, Ben. S. How May the Parent Teachers Association Aid Public School Education? 1926.
139. Windrow, John Edwin. Teacher Holding Power of Tennessee High Schools.

PART XVII.

STUDIES DEALING WITH THE PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGE

140. Gillenwater, Lester N. The Mortality of the Junior College in the Southern States. August, 1932.
141. Simmons, I. F. The Public Junior College. 1924.

DEPARTMENT MATTERS

National Honor Society

Over ten years ago the Department of Secondary-School Principals (then the National Association of Secondary-School Principals) organized the National Honor Society with the end in view of stimulating scholarship in the secondary schools of the United States. To-day there are over one thousand chapters and these are in the best high schools in the country. The four objectives of the society are: to create an enthusiasm for scholarship, to stimulate a desire to render service, to promote worthy leadership, and to encourage the development of character. Every high-school principal who has a chapter is enthusiastic over the productive results of this organization in his school.

Direct all requests for literature to H. V. Church, 3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Illinois.

Emblem, National Honor Society

The emblem is made in two sizes: a watch charm size, and a pin (smaller size. All pins have 10k safety catch. The prices are as follows:

14k Charm.....	\$2.50	14k Pin.....	\$2.00
10k Charm.....	\$2.20	10k Pin.....	\$1.75
Gold Filled Pin.....			\$1.25

ALL ORDERS MUST HAVE THE APPROVAL OF THE PRINCIPAL
AND WILL BE SENT C. O. D. ADDRESS ORDERS TO

H. V. CHURCH, 3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Illinois.

WARNING

The National Honor Society has met with such great success that imitations are springing up in different parts of the country. These pseudo honor societies seem to have largely a commercial objective, and plan to exploit scholarship for financial ends. Members of our department are warned to beware of any plan to sell pins or emblems to pupils under the guise of scholarship, and are urged not to lend their aid or influence to such organizations.

The Department of Secondary-School Principals recommends only the National Honor Society and the National Junior Honor Society.

The National Junior Honor Society

The National Junior Honor Society is patterned very closely after the Senior Honor Society. The Junior Society is designed for ninth and tenth grades in four year high schools, and for eighth, ninth, and tenth grades in junior high schools. This organization is now a going concern, and already there are a number of chapters, both in senior high schools and junior high schools. The national constitution, the model constitution, and booklet of information as well as the application blank will be sent on request.

Direct all applications to:

H. V. CHURCH, Executive Secretary,
3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Illinois.

Emblem, National Junior Honor Society

The emblem is made in two grades; ten karat gold and gold filled. All pins have safety catch. The prices are as follows:

Ten Karat Pin,.....	\$1.50
Gold Filled Pin,.....	1.00

ALL ORDERS MUST HAVE THE APPROVAL OF THE PRINCIPAL and will be sent C. O. D.

*Address orders to: H. V. CHURCH,
3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Illinois.*

SEALS AND MEMBERSHIP CARDS

Membership Cards—Since the organization of the National Honor Society there has been a growing demand for membership cards in the organization. Cards of membership both for members of the National Honor Society and for the members of the National Junior Honor Society are now on sale. The cards ($2\frac{1}{2}'' \times 3\frac{3}{4}''$) are engrossed on a fine quality of cardboard, have the emblem of the Society embossed upon them, and require only the insertion of the name of the member.

The price of the cards is five cents apiece.

Seals—The Seal (1 $\frac{1}{4}$ "x1 $\frac{1}{2}$ ") is a gilt embossed sticker to be affixed on the diplomas of members of chapters. A replica of the emblem is embossed on the seal.

The price of the seals is five cents apiece.

Plaques—A bronze wall plaque has been designed and manufactured. Schools that have chapters of the National Honor Society will now have the opportunity of having this plaque. It consists of a solid bronze casting mounted on a walnut back. The size is thirteen by sixteen inches and the weight is ten pounds. A chain is furnished. All lettering, as well as the name of the school chapter and the emblem, is raised and polished above the bronze background.

The price is \$30.00, which includes transportation and packing.

Order only from:

H. V. Church
3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Illinois.

National Honor Membership Certificates

In response to repeated demands, the Department of Secondary-School Principals has prepared membership certificates 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ "x11" for members of the National Honor Society. These certificates are lithographed on artificial parchment with the die of a facsimile of the emblem stamped in gold. They sell for ten cents apiece postpaid. Direct orders to H. V. Church, 3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Illinois.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF
 SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS OF THE
 NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

The publications below are sent postpaid. In lots of ten or more of the same issue a reduction of ten per cent is granted, and the shipment is by express collect.

PUBLICATIONS

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